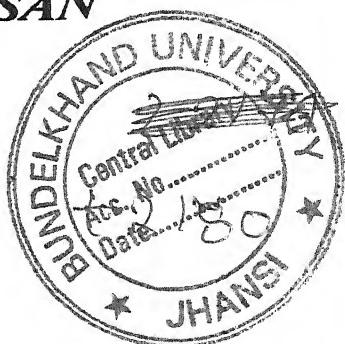




STUDIES ON FATS AND THEIR FATTY ACIDS

**THESIS
SUBMITTED TO THE
BUNDELKHAND UNIVERSITY, JHANSI
FOR
THE AWARD OF THE DEGREE OF
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY
IN
CHEMISTRY
BY
*SYED NAFEESUL HASAN***



DEPARTMENT OF CHEMISTRY

PT. JAWAHARLAL NEHRU POST GRADUATE COLLEGE

BANDA (U.P.)

**DEDICATED TO
MY PARENTS**

**PT. JAWAHAR LAL NEHRU
POST GRADUATE COLLEGE, BANDA (U.P.)**

Dr. R.C. Dubey
M.Sc., D. Phil
Reader & Head
Department of Chemistry

Type III-II D.M. Colony
Civil Lines, Banda -210001 (U.P.)
Ph. (Res.) 05192-221125

CERTIFICATE

This is to certify that the work described in this thesis entitled
“ STUDIES ON FATS AND THEIR FATTY ACIDS ” has been carried
out by Syed Nafeesul Hasan, under my supervision. The thesis is suitable for
submission for the award of the degree of Doctor of Philosophy in Chemistry.

Syed Nafeesul Hasan has worked for more
than 200 days for Ph.D. work in the department

R.C. Dubey
(Dr. R.C. Dubey)
Supervisor

CONTENTS

	Page
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. Part I– Compositional studies on Indigenous seed oils.	
A. Theoretical	3
(i) Introduction of cyanolipids	5
(ii) Component Fatty Acid of Natural Fats.	10
(iii) Isolation and characterization of cyonolipids.	26
(iv) Isolation and characterization of Fatty Acids.	54
B. Present Work	
(i) Fatty Acid Analysis of Indigenous Seed oils.	61
(a) Results and Discussion.	61
(b) Experimental Procedure	69
(ii) Cynolipids of <i>Sapindus obovatous</i> and Reinvestigation of <i>Dodonea viscosa</i> (Sapindaceae) and <i>Heliotropium indicum</i> and <i>H. eichwaldi</i> (Boraginaceae) seed oils.	72
(a) Results and Discussion.	72
(b) Experimental Procedure.	77
C. References	80
Part II: - Reaction of Nitrosyl Chloride with Long-chain Fatty Acids (Internal, terminal, and α , β Olefinic acids) and their derivatives	

A. Theoretical	93
B. Present Work	135
(i) Results and Discussion	135
(a) Nitrosochlorination of methyl oleate.	135
(b) Nitrosochlorination of methyl 10-undecenoate.	148
(c) Nitrosochlorination of methyl docos-trans-2-enoate	156
(d) Reaction of nitrosyl chloride with 1, 2 – hexadecandiol.	161
(e) Reaction of nitrosyl chloride with 10,11- epoxyundecanoic acid.	188
(ii) Experimental Procedure.	194
C. References	212
4. Published Paper	

I am also thankful to Mr. Hemlal and Mr. Mahendra whose contribution can not be undermined in terms of glassware and reagents arrangements.

Finally, I owe an unquantifiable dept to my father Dr. S.Q. Hasan, mother Smt. Zareena Khatoon, my sister Tahira Begam, brother Dr. S.S. Hasan and all family members for their unstinted support.

As an expression of my indeptness, I dedicate this work to them.

Syed Nafeesul Hasan
Syed. Nafeesul Hasan.

INTRODUCTION

1. INTRODUCTION

Although the study of natural products has always been a prominent part of organic chemistry, fatty acids have not been seriously considered in comparison with the more favoured carbohydrates, terpenoids and alkaloids to mention only a few. Fatty acids generally undergo all classical reactions of organic chemistry. It is rightly pointed out that the different phases of the development and progress of organic chemistry are better exemplified by the general perfection achieved by the chemistry of fatty acid.

The long-chain fatty acids have their origins in land and marine animal fats, vegetable seed oils and organic synthesis. Naturally derived fatty acids are normally considered replenishable in the sense that animals and plants reproduce themselves. There are good reasons for expecting that fatty acids as renewable sources, will become even more important in years to come. There has been a concentration of a study on only few usual fatty acids like oleic, linoleic and their geometric isomers. It has generally been assumed that what is true of oleic acid holds for other monoenoic acids and that what is true for linoleic acid holds for other polyenoic acids. Considering this limited sphere of investigation in fatty acid chemistry our research activity on fatty acid reactions has been directed towards the reactions of olefinic acids containing terminal,

internal and α , β - unsaturation. Our emphasis has been more on the preparation of new fatty acid derivatives using both classical and nonclassical reactions and to study the co-relation of structure and product composition in the preparation of these derivatives. It has been estimated that by the turn of the present century the world population will be doubled and a serious global crisis will arise for need of oil in edible and non-edible industries. Consequently the programme of screening uncultivated seed oils has been initiated in many advanced countries with a view to discover new seed oils and fatty acids which may lend themselves to practical utilization.

In early 1960's India used to export oil seeds after meeting its domestic requirements. But now ours is an edible oil deficient country. There is a vast potential of minor oilseeds which if properly trapped, can substantially augment the overall supplies of vegetable oils and help in bridging the wide gap between their demand and supply.

Uncertainty over availability and cost of petrochemicals has rekindled academic interest in natural oils as an alternative raw material source of fatty chemicals. In view of the above objectives the present work described in the thesis deals with the studies on seed oils and the chemistry of fatty acids.

PART-I
COMPOSITIONAL STUDIES ON
INDIGENOUS SEED OILS

A. THEORETICAL

A. THEORETICAL

Over the past ten years the world-wide production and consumption of fats and oils has gone up by 1 to 1 ½ million tonnes, or some 2% a year. The share of developing countries in the growth has been comparatively small, although some of them such as Malaysia, Brazil, Indonesia and the Ivory Coast, have increased the production and export tonnage in recent years. In fact oil occupies a pivotal position for developing country's economy in the present day world.

Our knowledge of natural fats of vegetable origin is very limited to the extent that out of about 2,50, 000 known species of plants only 12-14, 000 seed oils from about 200 families had been analyzed for their fatty acid composition by 2005. Lipid chemists have been actively engaged in basic and applied research aimed at the development of new crops for industrial and edible purposes. The fundamental phase of this type of research is a cooperative screening programme to discover, define and evaluate new or unusual compounds of promising utility in many different directions in plants with a reasonable potential for cultivation. Such screening programme has revealed and continues to indicate seed species whose development into new domestic crops could satisfy existing needs, or newly developing requirements of our industry as it increases in size and complexity. The species or groups of species, found

to have an outstanding potential as new oilseeds, await agronomic improvement through selection and breeding before crop status can be realized.

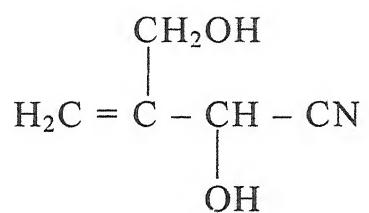
India is a major oil seed and oil-producing country. No botanico – chemical survey has earlier been carried out in exploring our natural forest resources from wild/semi-wild herbaceous plants and in finding improved crops potential.

About half a century ago, lipids were considered to be oily intractable substances that could be separated into simpler components only with great difficulty and they were studied by a comparatively limited number of painstaking researchers. The development of chromatographic techniques, particularly gas-liquid chromatography and thin-layer chromatography, together with advances in spectroscopy, have led to an explosive growth of interest in these compounds and have revolutionized our knowledge of the role that lipids play in the structure and function of cell membranes, as essential dietary components and in numerous biological processes. Keeping in view the line of work described in this thesis an attempt will now be made here to mention briefly the occurrence, detection and analysis of fatty acids in seed oils.

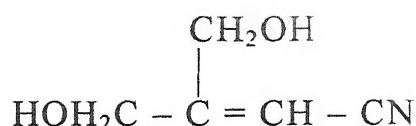
CYANOLIPIDS

Cyanolipids are components of the lipids of seeds in the family Sapindaceae. They are based on a five carbon backbone that comprises a nitrile moiety together with a methylene group of double bond, and one of two hydroxyl groups. Up to the time that the true nature of cyanolipids was discovered, *Schleichera trijuga* (Kusum) was the sapindaceous plant that had been most thoroughly investigated specially it's seed lipids. *Kusum* seed oil is used variously as a medical oil, a hair dressing, an edible oil and a raw material for soap production. The cyanogenic property of *Kusum* oil has long been recognized and documented^{1,2} and numerous reports describing its fatty acid and triglyceride composition have appeared³⁻⁶. It was also generally agreed that *Kusum* oil had little or no linoleic or linolenic acids, but that relatively large amounts (20-25%) of arachidic acid were observable by methods available to the investigators.

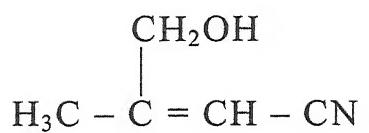
In early 1970's the structure of cyanolipids have been determined which are related to five carbon nitrile moiety differing in the position of double bond and the number and location of hydroxyl group (A-D)



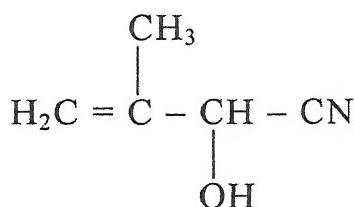
(A)



(B)



(C)



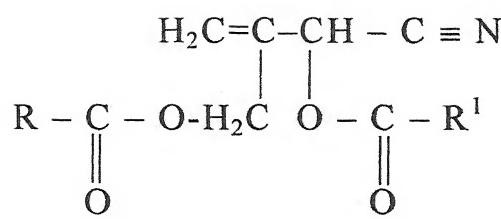
(D)

Progress in cyanolipid identification began with reports^{7,8} on *Schleichera trijuga* seed oil, even though their data and conclusion were quite misleading. At about the same time Mikolajczak *et al.*, in series of publication^{9-13,14} described the detection isolation and structure proof of four types of cyanolipids having different but closely related structures having different but closely related structures. In 1920, cyanolipids were first observed in *Schleichera trijuga* (sapindaceae) seed oil by Rosenthaler¹ and Sen Gupta². But the exact location of the cyanogenic moiety in the oil or its exact nature was not reported. The compound has been suspected to be in the form of a cyanogenic glucoside or an acid amide¹⁵. Later, Kundu *et al*⁷.reinvestigated the same seed oil to ascertain the location and nature of the cyanogenic compound by applying chemical methods, chromatography and infrared spectroscopy. Observations indicated the cyanogenic compounds to be a part of

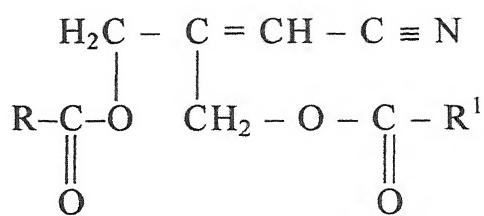
glyceride molecule in which one of the hydroxyl group of the latter is bonded to the cyanogenic compound through an ether linkage. Chromatographic behaviour of the isolated cyanogenic compounds further indicated the least two glyceride molecule are involved. These glycerides are predominantly esterified with saturated fatty acids. At the same time Kasbekar and Bringi⁸ working on the same seed oil found with the help of TLC that the oil is composed of approximately 37% of glyceride, the rest being non-glycerol esters of fatty acids.

Later studies^{9-13,14,16-18} have shown that the cyanogenic material is non-glycerol ester composed of one or two ordinary fatty acid moieties (predominantly C₂₀) esterified with an unsaturated isoprenoid hydroxyl or dihydroxynitrile.

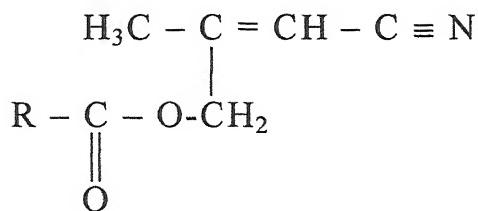
Four types of cyanolipids, present individually or in pairs, have been identified in the seed lipids which are cyanogenetic nonglycerol esters and are derivatives of five-carbon mono-or dihydroxynitrile moiety esterified with long chain fatty acids (I- IV). Out of these, one class of component is a mixture of diesters containing two fatty acid moieties esterified with 1-cyano-2-hydroxymethylprop-2-ene-1-ol (I) and 1-cyano-2-hydroxymethylprop-1-ene-3-ol (II). The other class of cyanolipids comprises mono-esters of 1-cyano-2-methylprop-1-ene-3-ol (III) and 1-cyano-2-methyl prop-2-ene-1-ol (IV).



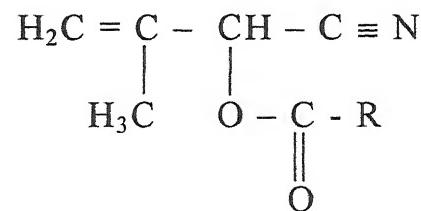
[I]



[III]

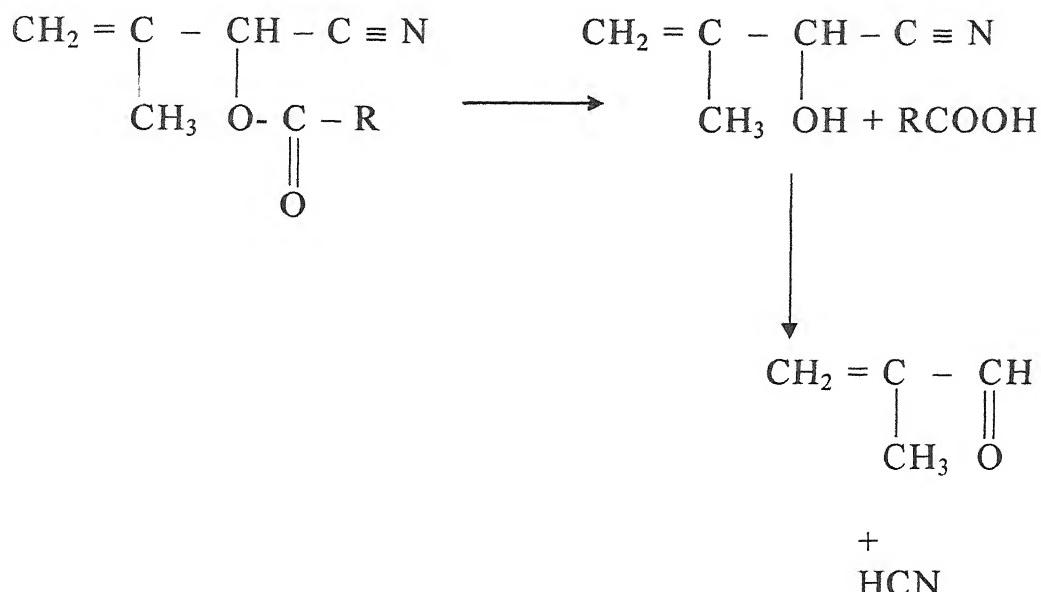


[III]



[IV]

It is important to note that type I & IV cyanolipids are cyanohydrin with the cyanohydrin hydroxyl group esterified, and that they have achiral centre. Type II and III cyanolipids are simply α, β – unsaturated nitriles, and they do not have a chiral centre. Also, on hydrolysis by acid or base and even with enzymes, the cyanohydrin that are released from type I and IV cyanolipids decomposes spontaneously with the production of hydroxyl cyanide i.e. they are cyanogenic, as illustrated below for a type IV cyanolipid.



Each cyanolipid fraction is a mixture in which the constituents differ only in the attached fatty acids; and because this mixture was difficult to separate and appeared to be based on a single aglycone, it was treated as a single entity during the course of investigations.

Significantly, the hydroxy- or dihydroxynitrile moiety in all four cyanolipids has an isoprenoid skeleton; this permits numerous possibilities for its biogenesis. Since other natural cyano compounds often seem to be derived from amino acids or their precursors¹⁹⁻²¹, it should be noted that decarboxylation of L-lucine would give the requisite saturated carbon and nitrogen skeleton for these nitriles.

A curious feature of these cyanolipid-containing seed oils is their high content of C₂₀ acids and the preferential incorporation of these acids into cyanolipids rather than into the accompanying triglycerides. This preference is probably related to the observation that *Litchi chinensis* seed

oil, which has insignificant amounts of C_{20} acids, also contains no cyanolipid¹⁴ However, recent studies on *Sapandaceous* and Boraginaceae seed oils²²⁻²⁵ has shown that *Heliotropium indicum*, *H.eichwaldii*²⁵ (Boraginaceae) and *D.Viscosa*²⁵ a Sapandaceous seed oil do not contain cyanolipids.

Both the column chromatographic and preparative TLC procedures used for the isolation of cyanolipids, which are somewhat unstable especially on hydrolysis, are time consuming ; therefore Seigler¹⁷ has developed the use of NMR spectra of the chloroform extracted seed oils to determine the presence and amount of cyanolipids and the glycerides with which they occur. All four cyanolipids (I to IV) may be distinguished from each other from glycerides by this method.

Component fatty acids of natural fats

More than 500 fatty acid structures have now been reported and the following generalization can be drawn from these. Natural fatty acids usually contain an even number of carbon atoms and are most commonly C_{16} , C_{18} , C_{20} , or C_{22} compounds: unsaturated acids have double bonds with *cis* or *Z* configuration in certain preferred positions in the carbon chain: polyene acids have methylene-interrupted unsaturation; the acids rarely contain any functional group other than the carboxyl group and olefinic unsaturation, Of course there are exceptions to all these

statements. Nevertheless, there are valuable generalizations against which to discuss fatty acid structure. In the last 40 years, new fatty acids possessing structural features quite unusual according to our earlier concept, have been discovered at an unprecedented rate. The unusual structural features of recently discovered natural fatty acids are described in subsequent headings. The structure of these unusual fatty acids of plant origin have been comprehensively reviewed by Smith²⁶.

Fatty acids containing unusual unsaturation

In recent years among C₁₈ acid, mono-unsaturation was found at different positions i.e. 3, 5, 6 and 11. All cis-5,9 and 5, 9, 12 acids have recently been reported in the seed oils of *Taxus baccata*²⁷ and *Larix leptolepia*²⁸ respectively. Very recently ω-5 monoenes, have been found in the seed fat of *Grevillea robusta*²⁹. C₁₆ mono-unsaturation, in seed fat is not as common as C₁₈ monounsaturated though amongst these acids mono-unsaturation has been found at the position, 3, 5, 6, 7 and 9. Spencer and coworkers³⁰ have reported the presence of 82% hexadec-cis-6-enoic acid in *Thunbergia alata* seed oil. Later on osman et al³¹ reported that the presence of 15.4% hexadec-cis-9-enoic acid in *Zanthozylum latum* (Rutaceae) seed oil.

Until 1964 only one acetylenic acid, tariric (Octadec-6-yneic) was known. Since then a number of acetylenic fatty acids have been

discovered in the oils of plant families Olacaceae, Compositae, Santalaceae and Simaroubaceae. Polyunsaturated acetylenic acids have been found in plant seeds from only two families, olacaceae and Santalaceae. Ligthelm and Schwartz³² porposed four possible structures for an unkown acetylenic acid in seed oil of *Ximenia caffra*, and proposed it be named Ximenynic acid. Later, Ligthelm et al. characterized the acid as octadec-trans-11-en-9-yonoic acid³³. Recently Pearl et al³⁴. reported two previously unknown acetylenic acids in the seed oil of *Alvaradoa amorphoides* (Simaroubaceae). These were characterized as octadec-17-en-6-yonoic and eicos-6-yonoic acids.

Previous work ³⁵⁻³⁷ at Peoria Laboratory has reported the analysis of a number of seed oils of Labiatae and found that the subfamily Stachyoidae is unique in the frequency with which allenic acid occurs. The first allenic acid was reported in Labiatae by Wolff et al.³⁵ to be (-) octadeca-5, 6-dienoic acid (Laballenic). Most recently Osman and coworkers³⁸ have found the seed oil of *Leucas cephalotus* (Labiatae) to be the richest source of laballenic acid.

Oxygenated fatty acids

Epoxy acids

Epoxy acids have been reported in seed oils from more than 65 species in about a dozen families. Not counting enantiomeric forms and excluding some additional epoxy acids in cutins, one C₂₀ and nine C₁₈ cis-epoxy acids have been isolated from seed lipids ³⁹⁻⁴⁵. However, they may be formed in nature, and this remains an unsolved problem, they can be considered as oxidation products of known olefinic acids. The structures can be arranged to show their relationship with the appropriate alkene acid: Oleic acids in the first group, linoleic and crepenynic in the second group and linolenic and other triene acids in the final group. There are five 9, 10-epoxides, three 12, 13-epoxides and one 15, 16-epoxide. Vernolic was the first acid of this class to be discovered by Gunstone in 1954⁴³ and it is still the most readily available. Its C₂₀ homologue (alchornoic acid) has recently been discovered by Kleiman and coworkers⁴⁴ from the seed oil of Alchornea cordifolia (Euphorbiaceae). C₁₈ epoxy acids were reported in the seed oil of *Crepis conyzaefolia* (Goun), Dalle Torre (Compositae) by spencer⁴⁵ are (+) -cis-12,13-epoxyoctadeca-trans-6-cis-9-dienoic (14%) and cis-12, 13—epoxy-octadeca-cis-6-cis-9-dienoic (2%) acid. A new 3, 4-epoxy acid, cis-3,4epoxyoctadec-cis-11-enoic (17,4%), was reported in the *V. roxburghii*

seed oil⁴⁶. Other C₁₈ epoxy acid was reported in the seed oil of *Mucana prurita* (Leguminosae) by Hasan *et al*⁴⁷, is *cis* – 12, 13 – epoxyoctadec – trans – 9 – enoic acid.

Hydroxy acids

Natural long-chain hydroxy acids are conveniently divided into three categories. One group has the hydroxyl function at or near the carboxyl or methyl end of the chain whilst those with mid-chain hydroxyl groups can be subdivided into acids with or without conjugated unsaturation. The end-chain hydroxy acids are most likely to have this oxygenated function α or β with respect to the carboxyl group or ω_1 and ω_2 at the methyl end. Such acids are present in lipids derived from brain, wool, seeds, yeast, and cutins. Some α - hydroxy acids occurring in seed oils⁴⁸⁻⁵⁰ are α - hydroxy derivatives of acids such as oleic, linoleic, linolenic, or sterculic, with which they usually co-occur (e.g. α -hydroxy linolenic⁴⁸, D-2 hydroxysterculic acids⁴⁹). It is of further interest that may also be accompanied by unsaturated acids with one less carbon atom. For example, *Salvia nilotica* (Labiatae) seed oil contains oleic, linoleic and linolenic acids, their C₁₇ analogues, and the α -hydroxy C₁₈ acids⁵⁰. It is reasonable to conjecture and there is some evidence for this that the α - hydroxy acids are intermediates in a chain-shortening process occurring

by α -oxidation. The C₁₇ acids have unsaturation in the position expected on this basis: the triene acid, for example, is $\Delta^{8,11,14}$

C₁₈ mid-chain hydroxy acids without conjugated unsaturation appear to be hydration products of oleic, linoleic, or linolenic acid. Hydration of an unsaturated alkene can, of course, yield two hydroxy compounds but the natural process under enzymic control could well be regiospecific. Prominent among these acids are ricinoleic [D-(+)-12-hydroxyoctade-cis-9-enoic] acid in castor oil as a major component, and strophanthus (or iso-ricinoleic) an isomer of ricinoleic acid (9-hydroxyoctadec-cis-12-enoic) which was first reported by Gunstone in several *Strophanthus* oils⁵¹. Ricinoleic acid has been reported as a major component in *Hiptage benghalensis* seed oil⁵² and isoricinoleic (Strophanthus) acid has been found to be the major component of the fatty acids of *wrightia tinctoria*,⁵³ *w. tomontosa*⁵³ and *w. coccinea*⁵⁴ seed oils. Higher homologues of ricinoleic and densipolic acids, lesquerolic [(+)-14-hydroxyeicos-cis-11-enoic] and auricolic (14-hydroxyeicosa-cis-11-cis-17-dienoic) acids have been discovered. Apart from the structural resemblance between these C₁₈/C₂₀ pairs, the compounds usually co-exist suggesting that they are biosynthetically related. Further examples of chain extension are to be found among the epoxy and furanoid acids and other cases probably await discovery.

Mid-chain hydroxy acids with conjugated unsaturation can be further categorised into those which contain and those which do not contain acetylenic unsaturation. Smith *et al.*⁴⁸ found and characterized 9-hydroxyoctadeca-trans-10, trans-12-dienoic acid, which they named dimorphecolic acid. In the same year Morris *et al.*⁵⁵ Chisholm and Hopkins⁵⁶ found independently the mixture of 9-hydroxyoctadeca-10,12-dienoic and 13-hydroxyoctadeca-9, 11-dienoic acids in seed oils. These acids were known to be either *cis*, *trans* or *trans, cis* in configuration. Those acids with unsaturation which is entirely olefinic resemble the products of oxidation of polyene acids such as linoleic. By chemical or enzymic reaction, linoleic acid furnishes hydroperoxides at C-9 or C-13 with a double bond shifting into conjugation i.e. 9-hydroperoxy 10t 12c diene and the 13-hydroperoxy 9c, 11t diene. The initially formed *cis trans* dienes pass easily to the *trans trans* isomers.

Hydroxy acetylenic acids tend to occur in fairly large proportions in some of the species that have acetylenic acids. Lighthelm⁵⁷ isolated 8-hydroxyximenic acid from *ximenia* oil. Miller *et al.*⁵⁸ have isolated two hydroxy acetylenic acids 8-hydroxyoctadeca-10, 12-dienoic and 8-hydroxyoctadec-17-en-10, 12-dienoic acids from the same seed oil. Powell *et al.*⁵⁹ characterized helenynolic acid (9-hydroxyoctadec-*trans*-10-en-12-yoic), an acetylenic analogue of dimorphecolic acid from

Helichrysum seed oil. Powell *et al.*^{60,61} detected and identified several new hydroxy acetylenic acids in *Acanthosyris* oil, of Santalaceae family. One of these is the first C₁₇ fatty acid (7-hydroxyheptadeca-*trans*-10, *trans*-16-dien-8-ynoic) to be found in quantity in a seed oil⁶². The C₁₈ and C₁₇ homologues may be related through α -oxidation though the α -hydroxy intermediates have not yet been discovered. It appears that hydroxyacetylenic acid are nearly as numerous as hydroxyolefinic acids in seed oils but may not occur in as many plant families.

There are three modes of occurrence of the long-chain hydroxy acids. Some, like ricinoleic acid in castor oil, form triacylglycerols in the conventional manner so that each glyceride molecule contains only three ester linkages. Others such as Kamala oil⁶³ and *Lesquerella auriculata* seed oil⁶⁴ generate glycerol esters with four ester linkages. Additional bonding results from acylation of the fatty acid hydroxyl group with a further long-chain molecule. The third category contains some of their hydroxy acids in lactone form viz. (s)-13-hydroxyoctadeca-cis-9, *trans*-11-dienoic acid lactone (coriolide) from *Monnierina emarginata* seed oil⁶⁵. The lactone rings are of moderate size⁶⁵.

Keogh and Zurita⁶⁶ isolated a very unusual fatty acid and characterized it as α -(15-hydroxyhexadecyl) itaconic acid from a lichen *Ushnea aliphatica*. In 1977, another new acid was discovered by Keogh

and coworker⁶⁷ from *Usnea meridensis* and structure of the acid was established as methyl 3, 4-dicarboxy-3-hydroxy-19-oxoeicosanoate acid. Rukmini⁶⁸ isolated from *Argemone mexicana* seed oil a solid acid which was designated as (+)-6-hydroxy-6-methyl-9-oxooctacosanoic acid. However, Gunstone *et al.*⁶⁹ showed it to be a mixture of three oxo acids: 9-and 11-oxooctadosanoic and the oxotriacontanoic in an approximate ratio of 1: 2: 1. Two new dihydroxy fatty acids (non vicinal) have been isolated by Osman *et al.*^{70,71} from seed oil of *Peganum harmala* and *Baliospermum axillare* and characterized as 9,14-dihydroxyoctadecanoic acid and 11,13-dihydroxytetracos-*trans*-9-enoic acid respectively.

Oxo acids

Natural keto or oxo acids are much less common. The keto acids of plant origin are a rather heterogeneous group with no unifying features other than possession of one carbonyl group. Thus far, no fatty acids with more than one ketone function have been discovered. In Oiticica oil the conjugated triene acid, eleostearic (18: 3, 9c 11t, 13t, 15c), is accompanied by its 4-oxoderivative whilst *Chrysobalanus icaco* seed oil also contains the conjugated tetraene acid- parinaric (18:4, 9c, 11t, 13t, 15c), and its 4-oxo derivative³⁹.

Two oilseeds contain mid-chain oxo acids of longer-than usual chain length. *Cuspidara pterocarpa* seed oil contains C₂₄, C₂₆ and C₂₈ acids⁷² all of which have the common C₁₀ end-group (V). They could therefore arise from linoleic acid by a selective oxidation at C-9 followed by chain-extension.



(V)

n=13, 15 or 17

Argemone mexicana seed oil has been shown by Gunstone *et al*⁶⁹ to contain three oxo acids with 28 and 30 carbon-atoms (VI, VII and VIII). It is conceivable that these arise biologically from stearic and arachidic

acids by a chain-extension process in which the original carbon remains in the oxidized form.



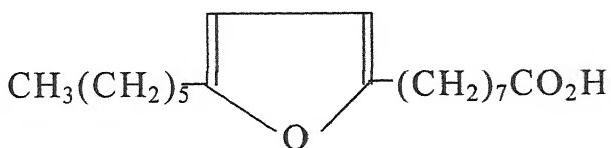
(VI) ($m=18$, $n=7$)

(VII) ($m=16$, $n=9$)

(VIII) ($m=18$, $n=9$)

Furanoid acids

In the group of natural ether acids which contain a furan ring the first represents an unbranched 18-carbon furanoid acid with an ether linkage between C-9 and C-12 or alternatively the n-10 and n-7 carbon atoms. This acid (9, 10-epoxyoctadeca-9, 11-dienoic, IX) was first isolated by Morris *et al.*⁷³ from a plant source *Exocarpus cupressiformis* (Santalaceae). It remained a chemical curiosity until the report in 1975 by Glass *et al.*⁷⁴⁻⁷⁶ that the lipids of the male Northern Pike (*Erox lucius*) contain six or more branched-chain furanoid acids. We know little or nothing of the biosynthesis, metabolism, or purpose of these unusual acids.



There is a growing interest in the oxygenated acids which appear in seed oils after prolonged storage of the seeds. The occurrence of such acids in commercial seed oils makes it important that we know more about their chemistry. Sunflower seed oil, extracted from seeds which have been stored for 2-10 years, contain about 5% of oxygenated acids among which four have been recognized : they include 9, 10-epoxy acids related to oleic and linoleic acid and two of the hydroxy diene acids which arise, presumably, through oxidation of linoleic acid⁷⁷. The seed oil of *Stenachaenium macrocephalum* is unusual in containig a rare triene acid with 3t, 9c, 12c unsaturation. After two years storage of the seeds the extracted oil contains about 6% of epoxy acids and a similar amount of hydroxy acids. Among these are oxygenated derivatives of the unusual triene acid including its 9, 10-epoxide and 9- and 13-hydroxy derivatives⁴⁰. Freshly harvested soyabeans furnish an oil with about 0.3% of oxygenated acids. After only 1-2 months storage the value has risen to 1-2%⁷⁸. About one half comprises 9, 10-epoxy acids derived from oleic, linoleic and linolenic acids and one third are hydroxy acids including

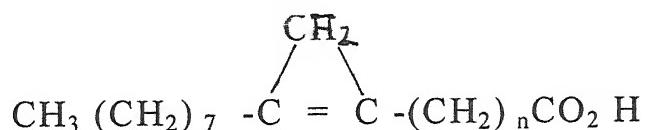
mainly 9, 12-and 13-hydroxy C₁₈ diene acids with 9- and 12-hydroxy C₁₈ monoene acids as minor components.

Alicyclic – substituted acids

Upto the present three types of alicyclic-substituted acids have been encountered in natural fats, which are (a) Cyclopropane (b) Cyclopropene and (c) Cyclopentenyl (or Cyclopent-2-ene) acids.

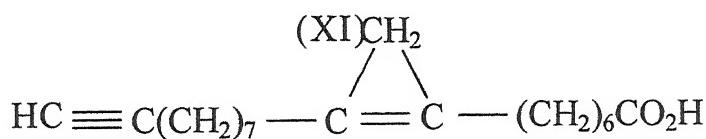
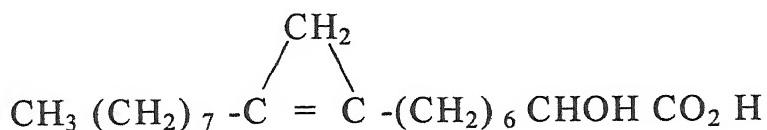
Cyclopropane and cyclopene acids are characterized by the presence of three-membered saturated and unsaturated rings respectively at or near the centre of the hydrocarbon chain. Lactobacillic acid was the first cyclopropane fatty acid to be found in nature, others have now been discovered. The cyclopropane fatty acids are commonly produced by the microorganisms but they are also found generally in small amounts in certain seed oils where they may be biosynthetic precursors of cyclopropene fatty acids. Dihydrosterculic acid is a major constituent (17.4%) of the seed oil of *Dimocarpus longans* (*Euphorbia longana*)⁷⁹ of Sapindaceae family, and it also accompanies the cyclopropene fatty acids, sterculic acid, in many species of the plant order Malvales. Cyclopropene acids have been found principally in seed lipids, though they also exist in other tissues of four plant families of the order Malvales (Stereulaceae, Malvaceae, Bombaceae and Tiliaceae) and may be accompanied by small amounts of the saturated analogue of sterculic acid,

dihydrosterculic acid. The Sterculic acid was first isolated by Nunn in 1952⁸⁰. *Sterculia foetida* seed oil and showed it to be 9, 10- methylene – octadec – 9-enoic acid (Xa). Shortly afterwards malvalic acid (8, 9-methylnonheptadec-8- enoic acid Xb) was isolated and characterized^{81,82} and recently two other cyclopropene fatty acids have been discovered, D-2-hydroxysterculic acid⁴⁹ (XI) and sterculynic acid (8, 9-methyleneoctadec- 8-ene- 17- ynoic acid,XII⁸³).



(Xa) Sterculic (n=7) ;

(Xb) Malvalic (n=6) ;

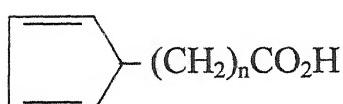


(XII)

Later by Osman *et al.*⁸⁴⁻⁸⁸ seed oils from *Sida acuta*, *S. rhombifolia*, *S. grewioides*, *Hibiscus sabdariffa* *Abutilon indicum*, *Urena lobata*, and *Eriolaena hookeriana* were found to contain sterculic

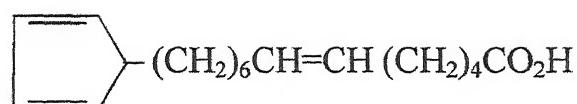
and malvalic acids as unusual constituents of triglycerides in addition to conventional fatty acids.

The fixed oils expressed from the seeds of most of the members of Hydnocarpus genus of the Flacourtiaceae family are commonly known as chaulmoogra oil and are used extensively in the treatment of leprosy and other cutaneous diseases. These oils are characterized cyclic fatty acids mainly hydnocarpic, chaulmoogric and gorlic acids, which do not seem to occur in any other seed fats than those of Flacourtiaceae family. All of these oils contain one or more fatty acids having a terminal cyclopentene ring, especially chaulmoogric (XIII), hydnocarpic (XIV), and gorlic (XV) acids, which account for 80 to 90% or more of the total fatty acids of these oils. Other homologues namely, alepric, alepylic, alepristic, and aleprolic acids, were found to be present in small proportions in some of these oils.



(XIII)

(n=12) (XIV)



(XV)

All the evidences of the past years suggest that nature still has gone some surprise for us in terms of fatty acid structure.

The unusual glycerides and some new classes of Lipids

Glyceride studies have so far been made mainly on fats of industrial or medicinal interest. Our present knowledge about glycerides is fragmentary. The discoveries, besides the usual triglycerides, being the common constituents of natural fats, include a variety of typical derivatives of glycerol which have been discovered in seed oils. Several seed oils containing hydroxy acids are known to have more than three fatty acids per glycerol molecule⁸⁹. The oil of *Lesquerella auriculata*⁶⁴ was found unusual in having glycerides containing more than three acyl groups, i.e. more polar tetra acid glycerides. Later another series of glyceride derivatives have been identified as acetotriglycerids in the seed oil of *Monnieria emarginata*⁹⁰ and *Celastrus orbiculatus* (Celastraceae)⁹¹. In latter case the monoacetotriglycerides represent 68-98% of the seed oils from selected species in the Celastraceae.

The seeds of *Ipomea parasitica*⁹² contain unique members of a class of glycolipids found in the plant family convolvulaceae. During the same phase of research the seed lipids of *Rapanea lactevirens* (Myrsinaceae)⁹³ were found to contain a series of 5- alkylresorcinols.

Isolation and Characterization of Cyanolipids

A. Isolation

1. By Preparative TLC

Even in instances where more than one type of cyanolipide occurs in a particular seed oil, each type can usually be recovered in a pure state by preparative TLC although some sacrifice of yield may have to be made. A possible exception to this generalization might surface if isolation of cyanolipids I and V is attempted from the same seed oil under less than optimum conditions, Benzene with silica gel plates gives a partial resolution of these two components and if reasonable care is exercised in removing bands from the plate, some uncontaminated I and IV should be recovered. This problem exist with oils containing any combination of cyanolipids including I and IV. Of course, I and IV are readily recovered from oils in which they occur singly. Cyanolipids II and III, whether found in an oil singly or together, may be resolved with ether - hexane (1 : 2)¹⁴ and perhaps also with ether-hexane (5 : 95)⁸. Thus, if I or IV (or both) are present, a separation with benzene is done; if II or III (or both) are present, the oil must be respotted on a second plate which is developed with ether - hexane (1: 2). Other uninvestigated solvents may be equally effective for achieving these separations.

Reported preparative TLC separations were probably achieved on hand-spread Silica gel layers of 1 mm or less, modern precoated plates with 2-mm silica gel layers are equally suitable. Loading of up to 200 mg of oil/1-mm layer (20x20cm plates) was reported^{11,14} heavier loading with little or no deterioration of resolution is practical with 2-mm layer plates. However, a slight-to-moderate increase in solvent system polarity may be required with commercial precoated plates to produce migration distances comparable to those obtained on ordinary hand-spread Silica Gel G layers.

For oils that contain cyanolipids as major constituents, the TLC bands can be visualized simply by viewing the developed plate over an incandescent lamp in a darkened room¹⁴. This procedure eliminates the need for removal of fluorescent dyes from the recovered cyanolipid. However: This method of visualizing TLC bands is not peculiar to cyanolipids and is probably applicable to any major constituents.

(2) BY column chromatography: Cyanolipid III is readily isolated in a pure state by column chromatography of *Stocksia* seed oil¹⁰ on silica gel. Triglycerides were first partially eluted with hexane and then cyanolipid III was eluted with ether-hexane. Similarly, chromatography of *Ungnadia* seed oil with hexane containing a little ether¹³ yielded pure cyanolipids IV.

However, column chromatographic techniques have generally failed in attempts to isolate cyanolipids I and II primarily because of insufficient resolving power. Seed oils to which this method has been unsuccessfully applied include Kusum oil^{3,7,94,95}, *Cordia* Oil¹², and *Koelreuteria* oil¹¹. Cyanolipids I and II have structural features more like triglycerides than III and IV do because they are diesters ; this characteristic makes resolution of I and II from triglycerides by column approaches tried thus far impractical.

B. Detection and Analysis:

1. Liberation of HCN

Three color tests are particularly suitable for use with oils containing cyanolipids. One is the picrate test^{12,96,97} which depends on the ability of HCN to react with alkaline the picratesaturated filter paper strips to produce isopuric acid⁹⁸. The scond test is based on formation of Prussian blue⁹⁶ and can be carried out as described by Seigler *et al*¹². A third procedure, based on the copper acetate-benzidine reaction⁹⁹ apparently produces satisfactory results with kusum oil fractions⁷ and also in the detection of small amounts of cyanogenic lipid adulterant in other vegetable oils and butter.

2. Infrared Spectral Properties

By itself, IR analysis of seed oils suspected of containing cyanolipids is not a particulary suitable detection method, but it can furnish valuable data when used in conjunction with other methods. Cyanolipids I and II (cyanohydrin derivatives) produce no truly characteristic IR bands as can be seen from Fig. 1. The ester - C = O (1740 cm^{-1}) band of I is slightly broadened, however. Weak, broad bands in the $920\text{-}925\text{ cm}^{-1}$ and 1010 cm^{-1} regions, which probably reflect the=CH₂ grouping present in these cyanolipids, are essentially nonexistent in spectra of the whole seed oils.

No - C ≡ N absorbtion is observed in the spectra of I and IV, because it is completely quenched by the proximity of the oxygen function¹⁰⁰. However, this 2230 cm⁻¹ band is prominent in spectra of II and III because, in these structures, the band's intensity is enhanced due to conjugation of the carbon-nitrogen triple bond with the double bond and due to the absence of an α - oxygen atom. In spite of this increased intensity, - C ≡ N absorption is not observed in the spectrum of *Sapindus mukorossi* seed oil which contains 13% of II and is weak in the spectrum of *Nephelium lappaceum* oil containing 21% of II. Obviously the relative intensities of this 2230 cm⁻¹ band in the IR spectra of II and III are directly related to the molecular weights of the two cyanolipids, which, in turn, are dependent primarily on the number of acyl moieties present. IR analysis therefore, would detect appreciable (> 15%) amounts of cynolipids II or III in a seed oil, but would be relatively undependable for oils containing I or IV or small percentages of II or III.

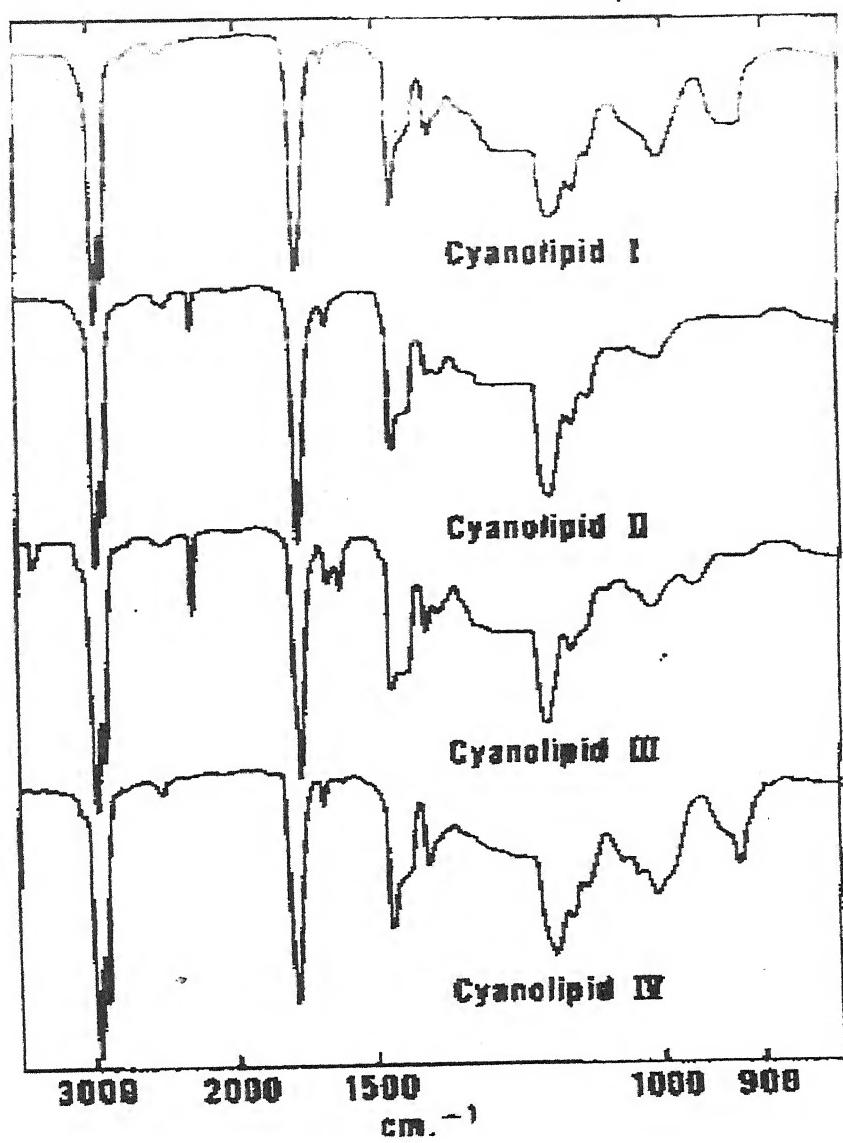


Fig. 1. Infrared spectra (1% CHCl₃) of purified Cyanolipids.

2. Thin-layer chromatography

Work with the four types of cyanolipids has shown that each type can be adequately and quite conveniently from the other three and from triglycerides by separate TLC analyses in different solvent systems. Using benzene with air-dried Silica Gel G plates, one obtains the pattern displayed in Fig. 2. The cyanohydrin esters (I and IV) migrate considerably further than the α , β -unsaturated nitrile esters (II and III) and, indeed, are less polar than ordinary triglycerides. Cyanolipid IV in *Ungnadia speciosa* seed oil, Fig. 2, lane 6, is the least polar of the four. In lanes I and 2 analyses for *Cardiospermum halicacabum* and *Cordia verbenacea* seed oils, respectively, indicated that each contains a fast moving spot due to cyanolipid I, which is not quite as mobile as IV. Thus, I and IV are resolved from normal triglycerides and from each other by benzene.

Koelreuteria oil (lane 3) contains both II and III and displays an elongated spot encompassing both cyanolipids and triglycerides. Both *Nephelium* (lane 4) and *Stocksia* (lane 5) oils which contain II and III, respectively, also give elongated spots but with some evidence of partial resolution of cyanolipids from triglycerides.

When TLC plates are developed with ether - hexane (1:3), the pattern shown in Fig. 3 is obtained. Now spots due to cyanolipids I and IV are

obliterated by the triglyceride spot, but cyanolipids II and III are well resolved from each other and from the triglycerides. Lane 3, the *Koelreuteria* oil analysis, shows two large spots in addition to the triglyceride spot. The more mobile of these spots is also seen in the *Nephelium* oil analysis (lane 4) and is due to cyanolipid II. Cyanolipid III, which is responsible for the more polar spot in *Koelreuteria*, evidently is the only cyanolipid in *Stocksia* seed oil (lane 5). Analysis of *Cardiospermum* oil in this solvent system detected a small amount (6 % was isolated¹⁴) of cyanolipid II. In addition, *Cordia* oil (lane 2) gave a very faint spot for II and *Ungnadia* oil (lane 6) contained traces of both II and III as shown by the dotted boundaries.

The chromatograms in Fig. 2 and 3 were overloaded to detect minor components; this caused some spots to be irregularly shaped. Polar spots near the origin in Fig. 2 and 3 are at least partially due to free fatty acids. R_f values of specific components on TLC plates may vary slightly depending on the adsorbent used, the method of drying, whether or not the atmosphere of the development tank is saturated with solvent vapors and the amount of materials applied to the plate.

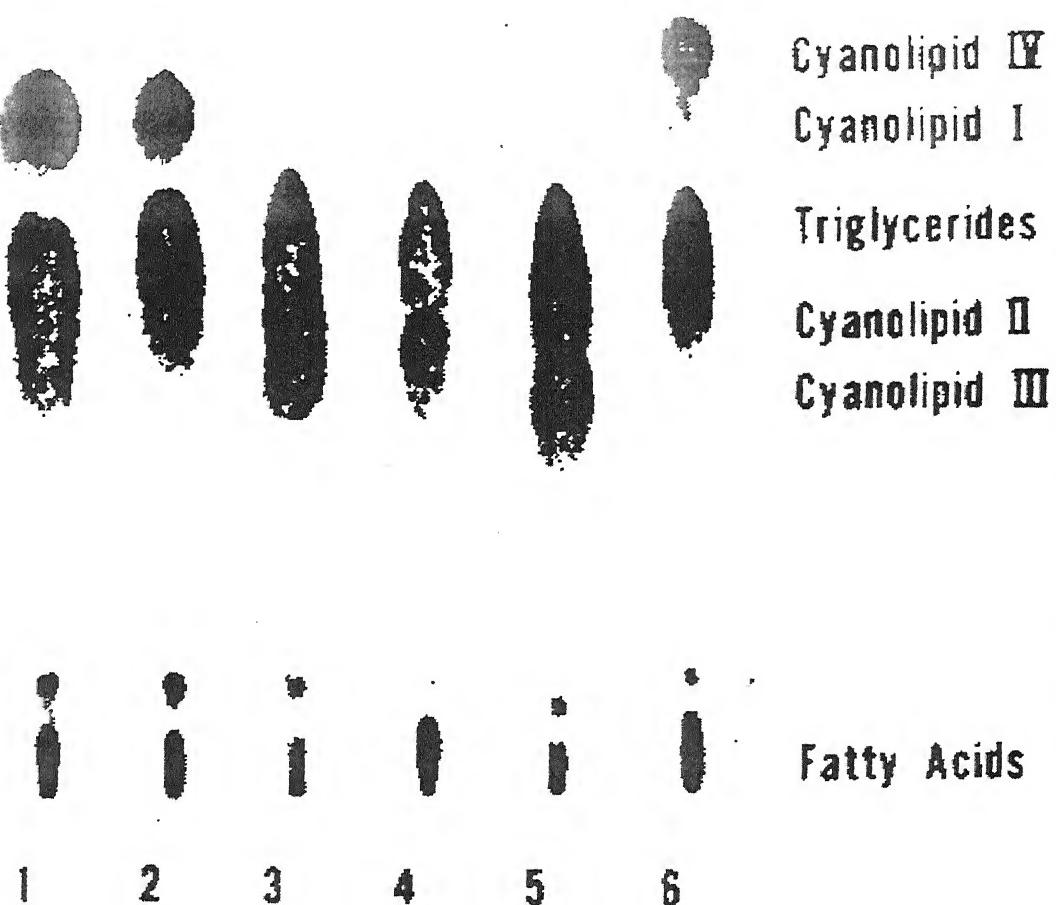


Fig.2. Thin -layer chromatogram of cyanolipid- containing seed oils develops in benzene. Lane 1, *Cardiospermum halicacabum*; lane 2, *Cordia verbenacea*; lane 3, *Koelreuteria panniculata*; lane 4, *Nephelium lappaceum*; lane 5, *Stocksia brahuica*, and lane 6,*Ungnadia speciosa*. Visualized by charring after spraying with sulphuric acid-dicromate solution.

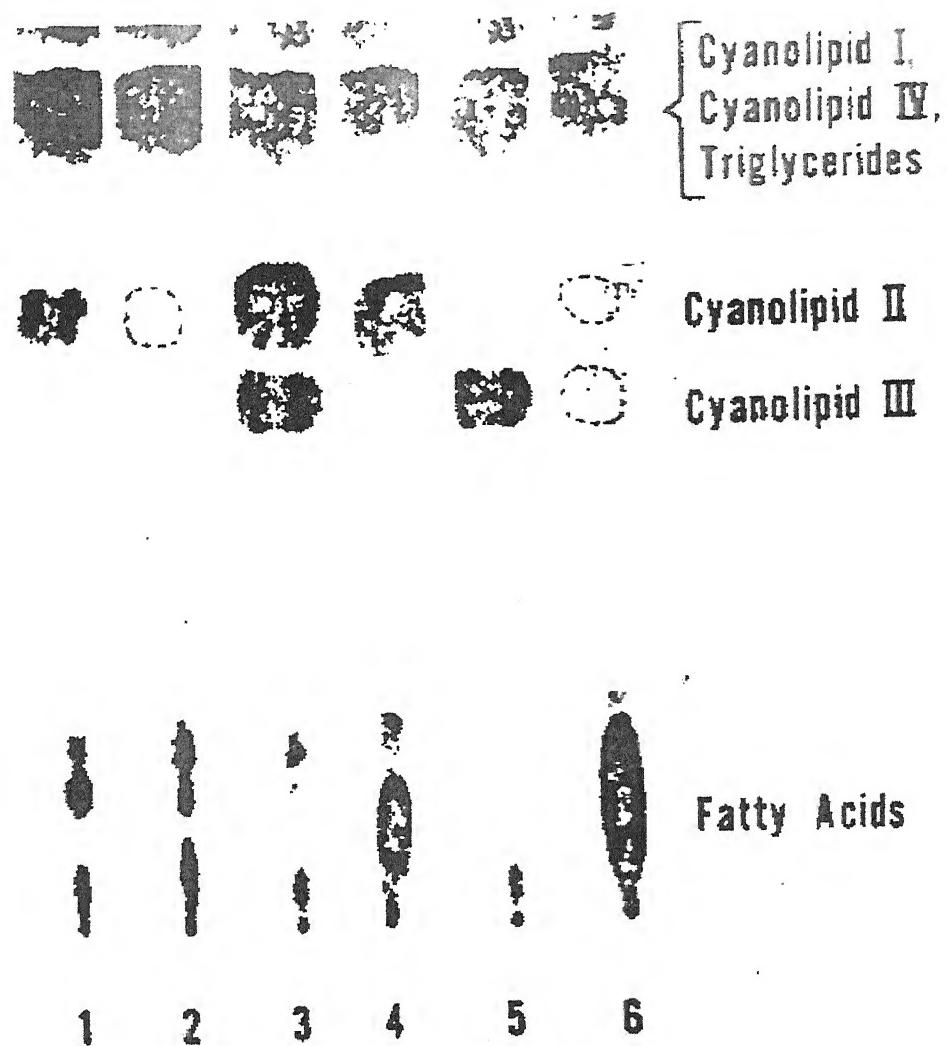


Fig.3. Thin -layer chromatogram of cyanolipid- containing seed oils develops in ether-hexane (1;3). Lane 1, *Cardiospermum halicacabum*; lane 2, *Cordia verbenacea*; lane 3, *Koelreuteria panniculata*; lane 4, *Nephelium lappaceum*; lane 5, *Stocksia brahuica*, and lane 6,*Ungnadia speciosa*. Visualized by charring after spraying with sulphuric acid-dicromate solution.

Kasbekar *et al*⁹⁴ report analyzing kusum oil on silica gel with ether – hexane (5 : 95) and observing a triglyceride spot (R_f 0.55), a cyanolipid spot (R_f 0.66) and a more polar cyanolipid spot of unspecified R_f . These values imply that in the solvent system, I, which is major cyanolipid of kusum oil⁷⁵, is resolved from triglycerides almost as well as with benzene (Fig. 2). The more polar spot can be assigned to cyanolipid II. This ether – hexane solvent should also be valuable in cyanolipid detection.

(IV) Gas – Liquid Chromatography:

GLC has been used to some extent for direct analysis¹⁰¹ of Sapindaceae seed oils containing cyanolipids^{10-12,14}. Even though GLC provided some of the first direct evidence for cyanolipids, the results were not entirely satisfactory¹⁴. Some difficulties involving apparent decomposition were encountered with cyanolipid II and also with I. The decomposition occurred erratically and variable which may have caused it, including temperatures, types of equipment and column packings, are obscure; the problem simply has not been investigated in depth.

Recent work indicates that oils containing any of the four cynolipids can be analized successfully under atleast one set of rather ordinary experimental conditions designed for triglyceride analysis. The GLC charts (chart speed = 0.25 in/min) reproduced in Fig. 4 and 5 were obtained with a Hewlett-Packard model 5750 instrument equipped with

flame ionization detectors. Helium was the carrier gas. On-column injection to a 90 X 0.3 cm stainless steel column packed with nonpolar, 3 % OV-1 packing was used, and the column bath temperature was programmed from 150 to 400⁰C at 4⁰/min.

Figure 4 A reveals that cyanolipid I, occurring in *Paullinia* oil, comes off the column at a higher temperature (321⁰C) than any of the other three cyanolipids. Since *Paullinia* a contains over 70 % of C₂₀ acids¹⁴, the major cyanolipid I peak (at 320⁰C) is due to a dihydroxynitrile moiety esterified with two C₂₀ acid residues. The two smaller peaks are due corresponding diesters involving a C₁₈₊₂₀ combination (312⁰C) and a C_{20+C₂₂} combination. The other type of diester, cynolipid II, is shown as it occurs in *Koelreuteria* seed oil, Fig 4B.

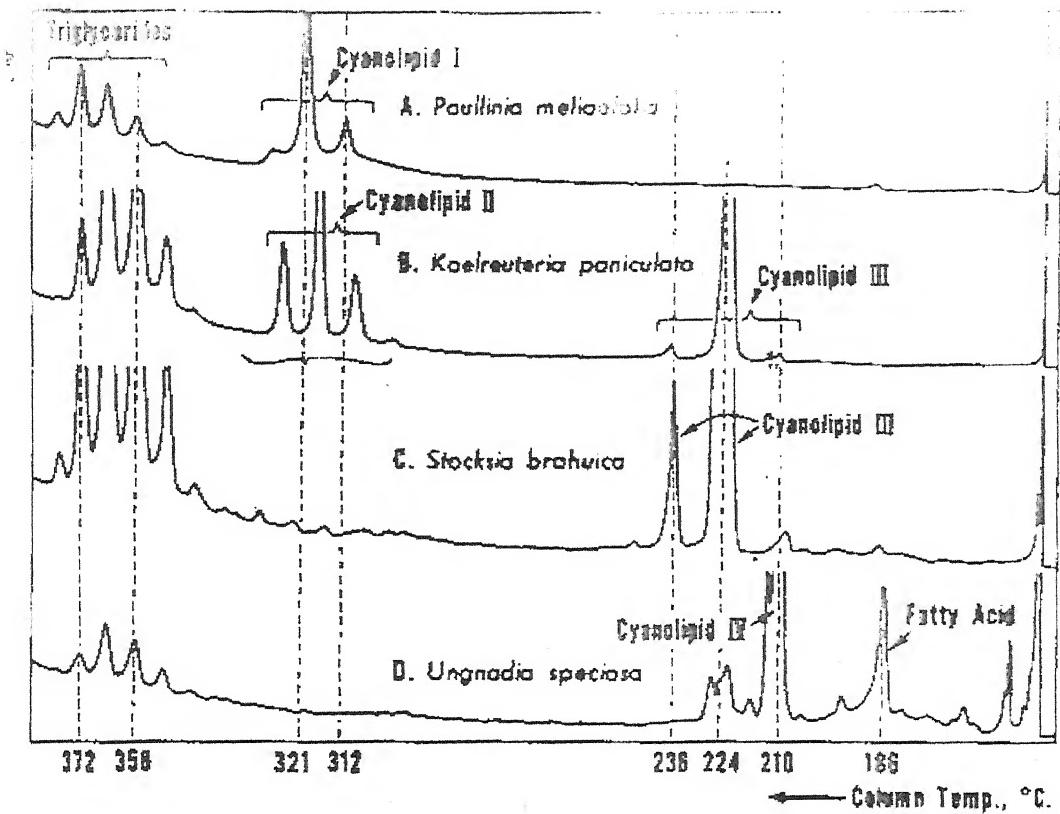


Fig.4. Temperature -programmed GLC analyses of cyanolipid-containing seed oils.

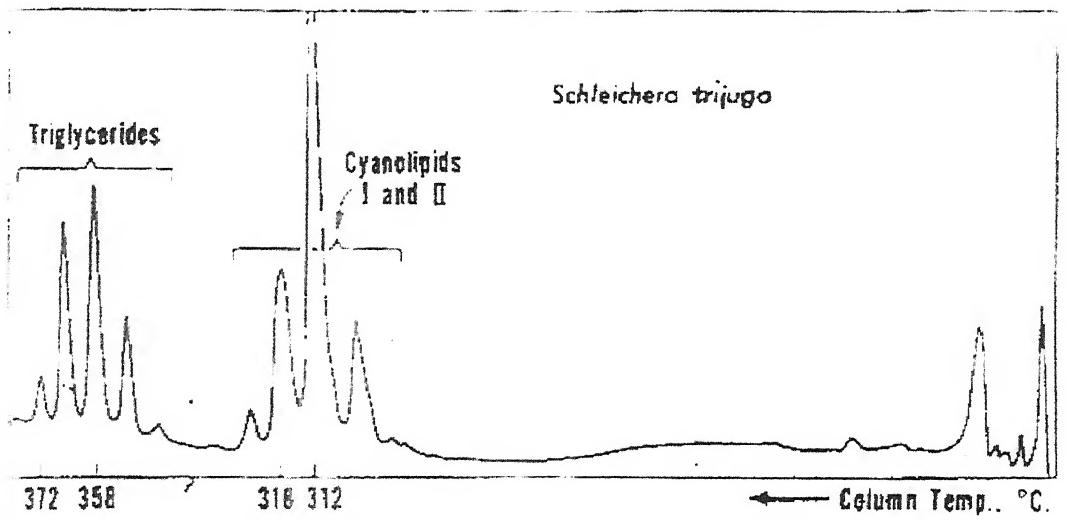


Fig.5. Temperature -programmed GLC analyses of *Schleichera trijuga* (kusum) seed oils.

Again the constituent having the dihydroxynitile esterified with two C₂₀ acyl groups presumably gives rise to the largest GLC peak observed.

Cyanolipid III emerges at much lower temperature (224⁰C) than I or II primarily because it is a monoester. Figure 4C shows III alone in *Stocksia brahuica* seed oil. Since III from either source contains 90 % of C₂₀ acids, the ester containing this acylgroup is responsible for the largest peak.

The double in the GLC analysis of *Ungnadia* seed oil (Fig 4D) is due to the presence of two monoesters; one contains a monoenoic C₂₀ acid (largest peak) and other contains a saturated C₂₀ acid (smaller peak at about 212⁰C). At the point on the chromatogram marked 224⁰C, there appears to be a small amount of cyanolipid III.

Thus, it is obvious from Fig. 4 that cyanolipids III and IV are readily separable and could probably be identified by GLC, even in an oil containing both of them. However, if the major ester of cyanolipid III contained a C₁₈ acyl group instead of a C₂₀, it would presumably emerge at 210⁰C, the exact location of cyanolipid IV. In this particular case, III could not be resolved from IV by GLC.

The same sort of overlap can exist with cyanolipids I and II, as demonstrated in Fig. 5. *Scheichera trijuga* (kusum) oil contains a large amount of cyanolipid I and a considerably smaller amount of II⁹. More importantly, both I and II in kusum oil are diesters composed primarily of C₁₈+C₂₀ acyl group combination instead of the C₂₀+C₂₀ combinations as in Paullinia cyanolipid I and *Koelreuteria* cyanolipid peak is at 312⁰C which corresponds to the elution temperature of one of the minor side peaks in *Paullinia* cyanolipid I. Slight shoulders, indicative of the resulting overlap of I and II in this oil, are visible on these GLC peaks.

Although GLC data alone are insufficient for absolute identification of these cyanolipids, they provide important information that is useful in conjunction with results from other analytical techniques.

Nuclear-Magnetic Resonance:

Unquestionably, the most useful and definitive tool available for the detection and structure elucidation of cyanolipids, is NMR analysis. For the four cyanolipids thus far isolated, the significant signals one needs to examine are distinctive and well resolved from acyl group proton signals.

Figure 6 shows the NMR spectrum of cyanolipid I form *Cordia verbenacea* seed oil¹². In this spectrum, signals due to protons of

methylene groups α to the acyl carbonyl groups (H_a , H_b) appear as two overlapping triplets, giving the observed four line pattern centered at τ 7.66. The $-CH_2O-$ protons, H_c and H_d , give a singlet at τ 5.37 if analyzed in deuteriochloroform; in deuterobenzene, the signal due to these same protons is two doublets, $J=13H_z$ (Fig 6, inset A).

The three remaining protons of the dihydroxynitrile portion of I produce three broadened singlets at τ 4.50 and 4.34 (H_f and H_g) and at τ 4.06 (H_e). Inset B reveals the complexity of all three signals. Terminal methylene protons such as H_f and H_g frequently are nonequivalent and have different chemical shifts. Another peculiarity of protons of this type is that they usually have small coupling constants as shown in Fig.6 in contrast to the 10 to 15 H_z coupling ordinarily existing between nonequivalent geminal protons. Irradiation of the H_c , H_d signal produces a partially decoupled spectrum, Fig.6, inset C, which demonstrates that allylic¹⁰² coupling exists between proton H_e and proton H_f and H_g . Cyanolipid II from *Koelreuteria paniculata* seed oil¹⁹ also gives a unique NMR spectrum (Fig 7). Protons of the two methylene groups of the dihydroxynitrile moiety of II apparently experience different shielding effects, probably caused by the cyano group being nearer one methylene group than the other; this difference manifests itself in the generation of two signals, one a singlet at τ 5.13 and the other a double at τ 5.32 for

these protons. The latter signal is split by long range coupling with the vinylic proton, H_a . The other methylene protons are not noticeably coupled with H_a by virtue of their different stereochemistry. A broad singlet furthest downfield at τ 4.45 is due to proton H_a . Portions of decoupled spectra, shown as insets A and B, are self-explanatory.

Protons of the two methylene groups adjacent to acyl moiety carbonyls of II are equivalent and yield a triplet at τ 7.64 instead of the four line pattern observed for these protons in I (Fig.6) A broadened triplet at τ 4.68 due to acyl group vinyl protons completes the spectrum.

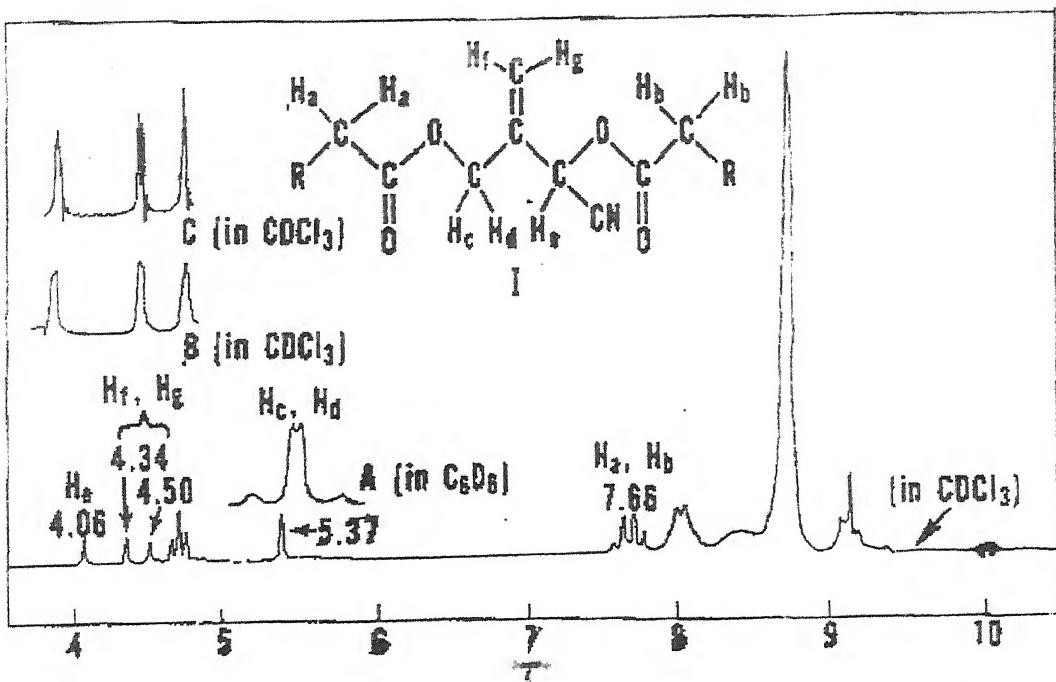


Fig.6 - NMR spectrum (100MHz, $CDCl_3$) of cyanolipid I. Insets are intensity and scale expansions' ; A, in C_6D_6 ; B, in $CDCl_3$; and C, decoupled signals in $CDCl_3$. Taken from Seigler et al12.

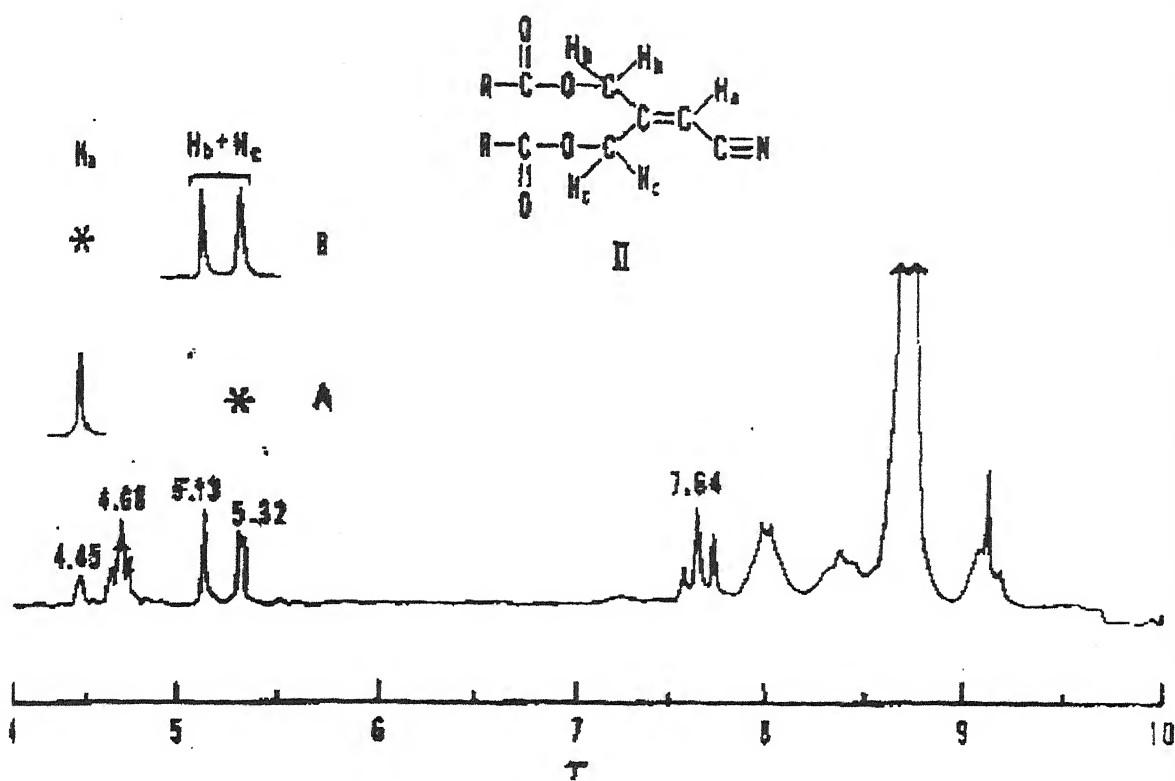


Fig.7 - NMR spectrum (100MHz, CDCl_3) of cyanolipid II. Insets A and B are portions of the decoupled spectrum obtained by irradiation at points marked by asterisk. Taken from Mikolajczak et al.¹¹.

In Fig. 8, the NMR spectrum of cyanolipid III, the presence of vinylic methyl group protons is indicated by the singlet at τ 8.09. The observed shoulder is due to allylic coupling ($J=1-1.5\text{Hz}$) with the vinyl proton H_a . Cyanolipid III contains only one methylene group attached to oxygen; these protons (H_c) are responsible for a slightly broadened singlet at τ 5.22. Broadening of this signal is caused by weak coupling with proton H_d . As shown in Fig. 8, the H_d signal in the deuteriochloroform spectrum is partially obscured by the acylgroup vinyl proton signal at τ 4.71. However, if deuteriochloroform-deuterobenzene (9:1)¹⁰ is employed as the solvent, these signals each shift in opposite directions as depicted in Fig. 9, and two well-resolved signals result at τ 4.66 (acyl vinyl protons) and at τ 4.90 (H_d). In addition, the H_c signal shifts to τ 5.26 and the vinylic methyl signal (not shown) shift to τ 8.22 when the spectrum is determined in this mixed solvent.

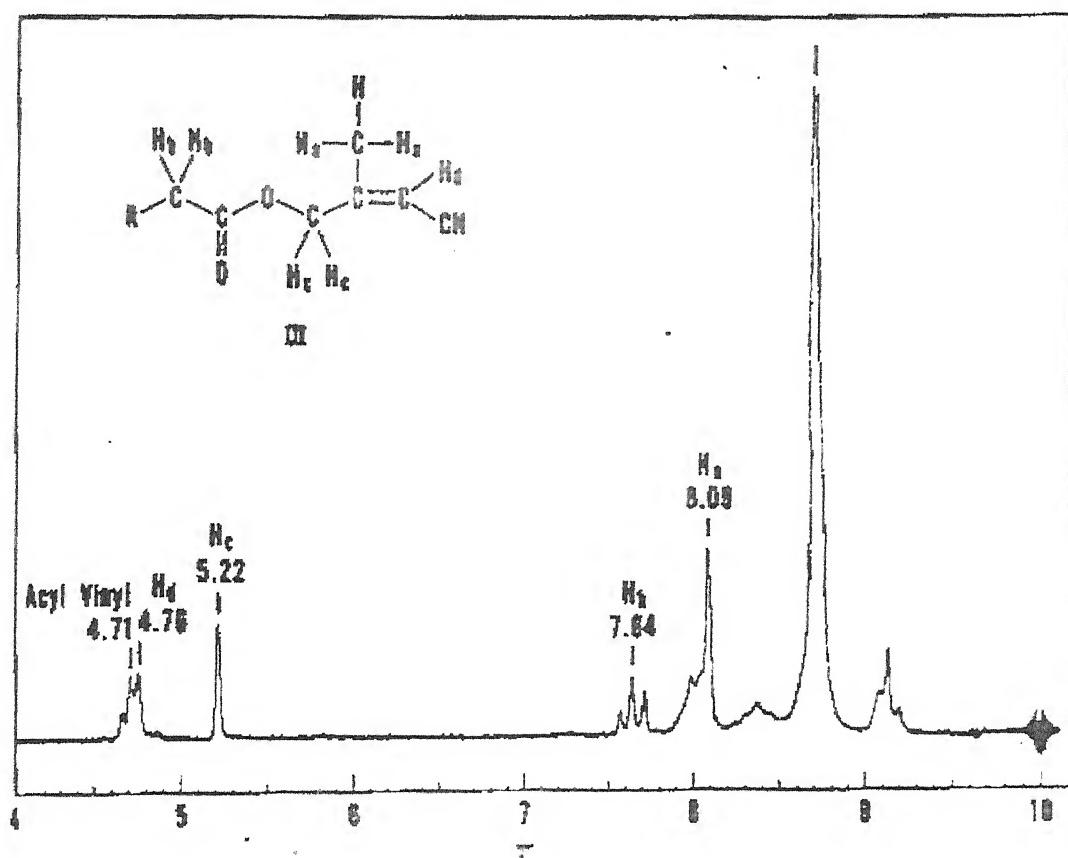


Fig.8. NMR spectrum (100MHz, $CDCl_3$) of cyanolipid III.

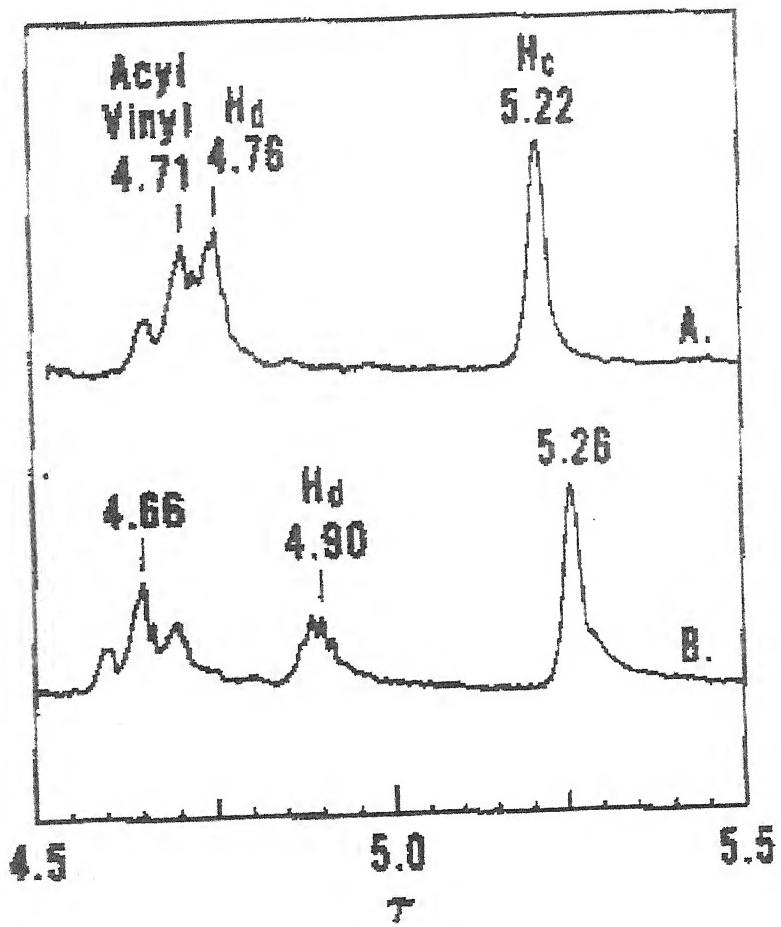


Fig.9 - Portion of intensity and scale expended 100 MHz NMR spectra of cyanolipid III. A, In $\text{CDCl}_3\text{-C}_6\text{D}_6$, 9:1 . Taken in part from Mikolajczak et al.¹¹

Cyanolipid IV, a monoester like III, gives the NMR spectrum displayed in Fig. 10, which yield, in essence, the same data reported by Seigler *et al.*¹³ A vinylic methyl proton (H_a) doublet is located at τ 8.14 and is coupled ($J=1.5$ Hz) with the terminal methylene protons H_d and H_c are nonequivalent and give rise to the more or less typical broadened and finely split singlets observed at τ 4.83 and τ 4.68; the latter signal is partially hidden by the acyl group vinyl proton signal. Proton H_c , the cyanohydrin proton, gives a singlet at τ 4.22 which is slightly broadened by weak coupling between H_c and atleast one of the terminal methylene protons.

(VI) Mass spectra

After cyanolipid fractions has been isolated from the seed oil and are free of contaminants, mass spectral analysis is helpful in the structure determination because these lipids give molecular ions. Cyanolipids I and II, the diesters, give molecular ions for all possible combinations

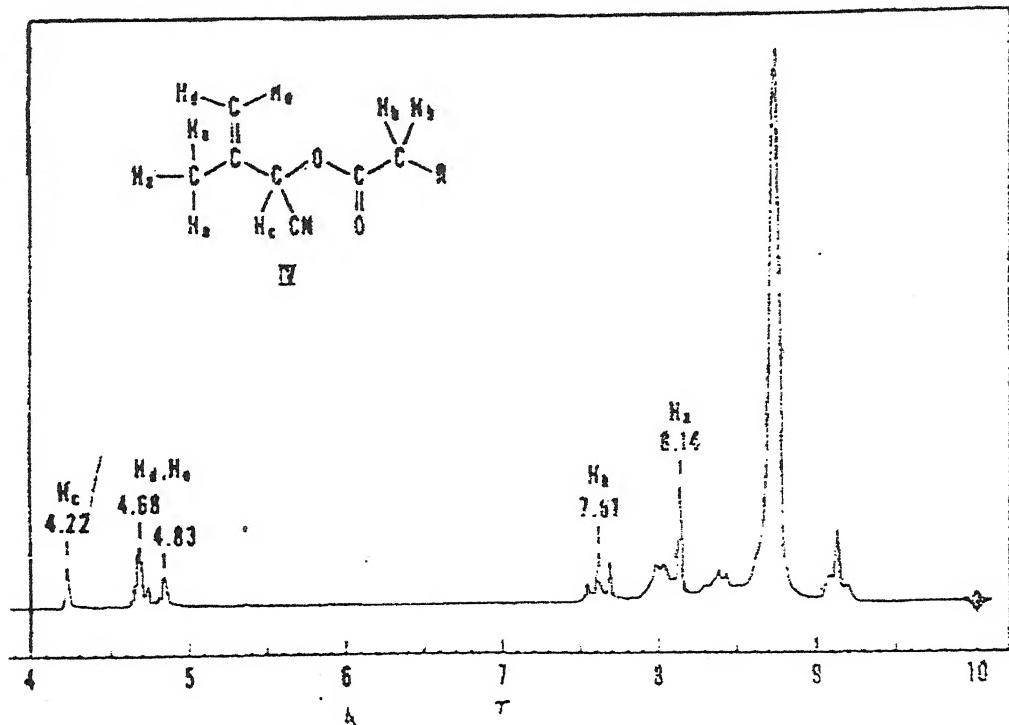


Fig.10. NMR spectrum (100 MHz CDCl_3) of cyanolipid IV.

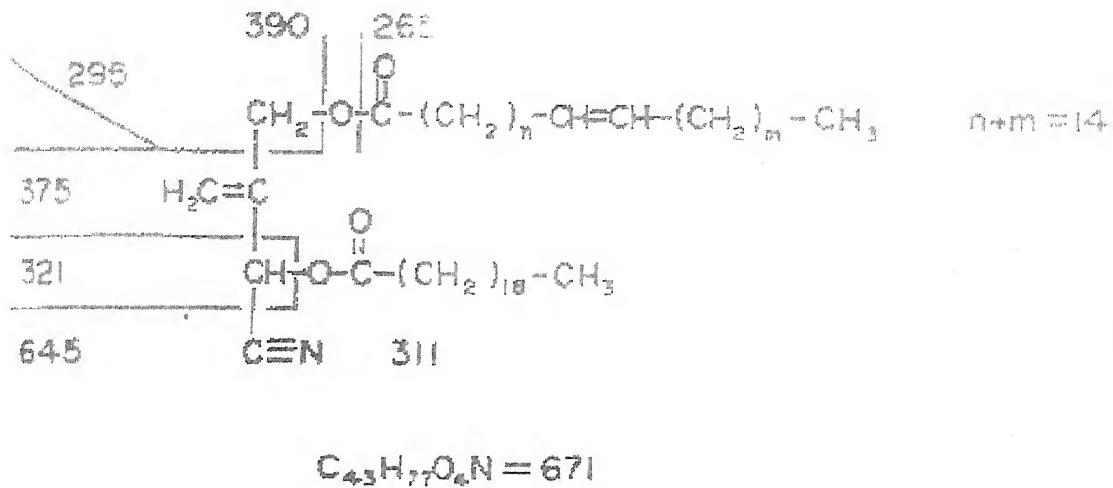


Fig . 11 - Mass spectral fragmentation pattern of cyanolipid I .

of any two acyl group found in the cyanolipid esterified with the dihydroxynitrile of molecular weight¹¹⁻¹² In cyanolipids I from *Cordia*^{12,16} and also from *Schleichera*⁹⁴, one of the most abundant molecular ions observed is m/e =671. This molecular weight corresponds to that of the diester containing a C₂₀ saturated acid a C₁₈ monounsaturated (or vice versa) acid. Other significant molecular ions form other acyl group combinations occur at m/e 727 and 725, 699 and 697, and 669 in the *Cordia*^{13,16} spectrum. A fragmentation pattern (Fig.10) was proposed for cyanolipid I from *Kusum* oil. Cyanolipid II encompasses a comparable range of molecular weights. In this case, the fatty acid composition of II (from *Koelreuteria* oil) indicates that the most abundant molecular ion probably would be derived from the diester incorporating a C₂₀ monounsaturated acid and a C₁₈ monounsaturated acid (m/e = 669); the mass spectrum demonstrated that this conclusion was correct. Cyanolipids III and IV from *Stocksia*¹⁰ and *Ungnadia*¹³ oils, respectively, produce a preponderance of the molecular ion of m/e = 389 from a C₂₀ monoenoic ester of the hydroxynitrile moiety.

(VII) Ultraviolet Spectra :

Cyanolipid II from *Koelreuteria*¹¹ showed UV absorption in cyclohexane at 208 μm , $\epsilon = 14, 340$ (assuming a mean molecular weight of 669). The corresponding monester with an α, β -unsaturated nitrile

grouping (III) from *Koelreuteria* oil also gave a maximum at 208 μm in cyclohexane, $\epsilon = 12,600$ (assuming a mean molecular weight at 389) and III from *Stocksia*¹⁰ gave $\epsilon = 13,070$. Cyanolipids I and IV posses no ultraviolet absorbing chromophore and can not be detected by this procedure. The absorption of small amounts of II or III in a seed oil is hidden by background absorption.

Isolation and Characterization of fatty acids

A review of the literature indicated that most of the analysis of vegetable seed oils from Indian species were based on the classical method of oil analysis. Screening analysis of seed oils containing unusual functional groups often gave unexpected responses to analytical procedures in frequent use. Chromatographic and spectroscopic instrumentation have greatly shortened the time needed for organic chemical studies and have increased accuracy in judging homogeneity and purity of materials manifold. The innovations of chromatographic techniques, particularly thin-layer and gas – liquid chromatography, together with advances in spectroscopy, have led to elucidation of many new fatty acid structures and the revision of certain others reported earlier. The main corrections of old mistakes continue to occur in stereochemistry since organic chemists have learnt to determine absolute configurations and preferred conformations by roentgeno graphic analysis, by NMR spectroscopy and by measurements of circular dichroism.

In seventies a few diagnostic spot tests have been development for the detection of unusual fatty acids. Some spot reagents include, picric acid for epoxy acids¹⁰³ ; 4-(p-nitrobenzyl) pyridine for hydroxyl¹⁰⁴ and acetylenic functions¹⁰⁵ ; 4 – amino-5 hydrazino -1, 2, 4- triazole – 3-

thiol for aldehyde group¹⁰⁶; 2, 4, - dinitrophenylhydrazine for keto¹⁰⁷; ferrous thiocyanate for hydoperoxide¹⁰⁸ and Halphen's spraying reagent for cyclopropenoid acids⁴⁹.

The assaying of fatty acids has experienced a total revolution with the development of chromatographic techniques. First developed by the use of adsorption column chromatography,¹⁰⁹ argentation¹¹⁰⁻¹¹³ and gas-liquid chromatographic techniques were then rapidly adopted for the analysis of fatty acids. The chemical identification of fatty acids by chromatography is based exclusively on the similarity of R_f values or retention times with those of reference compounds of known structure. Unfortunately because of the lack of specificity of these techniques, such criteria are insufficient proof of the chemical identity of a plant product and more specific information such as IR, NMR and MS data are essential requirements for unequivocal establishment of chemical structure.

Modern separative and purification techniques such as chromatography and electrophoresis have greatly facilitated isolation. A phenomenal separation method recently adopted in lipid chemistry is thin-layer chromatography (TLC). Some interesting new approaches involve use of complexing agents during TLCL of fatty acids. Impregnation of TLC adsorbents with silver nitrate to aid resolution of *cis*

and *trans* isomers and higher unsaturates has been suggested by various workers¹¹²⁻¹¹⁴. Morris¹¹⁰⁻¹¹⁴ also proposed the separation of mono-, di-and poly-hydroxy acid esters. *Threo* and *erythro* forms of vicinal diols may be separated by making use of boric acid - TLC¹¹⁴.

In the late fifties, the introduction of GLC along with TLC revolutionized lipid chemistry. Indeed, it is difficult to imagine modern lipid research without these now indispensable tools. GLC now is probably most widely applied method for structural analysis of fatty acids, including polyunsaturated fatty acids (PUFS)¹¹⁵⁻¹¹⁷, and is often applied in conjunction with mass spectrometry. Though GLC has brought to the oil chemists a more useful and versatile analytical tool than any which preceded it, several examples will suffice to show some limitations of this technique in application to many types of samples.

The use of preparative GLC has made it possible the isolation of pure fractions from a complex mixture. The collected fractions can be chemically modified and then re-examined by chromatographic analysis. Keto compounds can be converted to N, N - dimethyl hydrazides, or reduced to hydroxy compounds. Hydroxy esters can be oxidized to keto esters, acetylated or converted to their trimethyl silyl ethers, trifluoroacetyl, or isopropylidene derivatives.

Spectroscopy aids to the recognition and location of functional groups in fatty acid chains. Sometime, the structure can be completely recognized by the use of appropriate spectroscope techniques with a choice between ultraviolet, infrared, nuclear magnetic resonance (^1H NMR with or without chemical shift reagent, and ^{13}C NMR) and mass spectroscopy. On other occasions it is desirable to hydrogenate the acid first, to identify the perhydro derivative and then to tackle the problems related to unsaturation – its nature, configuration, and position.

UV spectroscopy is useful primarily as a means of detecting conjugation in polyunsaturated fatty acids. A direct UV spectrum of an oil showing maxima in the region 200-400 nm gives positive indication for the presence of conjugation. UV determines the number, and to some extent, the kind of multiple bonds in conjugation. As the number of multiple bonds in conjugation increases, UV absorption maxima occur at progressively longer wavelengths.¹¹⁸⁻¹²⁰ For example, dimorphecolic (9-hydroxyoctadeca- *trans*- 10, *trans*-12-dienoic) shows absorption maxima in methanol at 231 nm¹¹⁷, β - eleostearic (octadeca - *trans* -9, *trans* -11, *trans* -13 – trienoic) gives λ_{\max} Ethanol = 259, 268, 279 nm¹¹⁸.

In the past, UV has been applied to the structural analysis of PUFA mainly in conjunction with isomerization procedures. PUFA were analyzed by UV after treatment under rigorous alkaline conditions

(“alkali isomerization”). The number of double bonds in the original acid could be deduced by this procedure provided there was no deviation from methylene- interrupted spacing of double bonds in the starting material. This method is less frequently used since the advent of GLC.

IR spectroscopy is a considerably more versatile tool for structural analysis than is UV. IR spectroscopy is of particular value in the recognition of unusual functional groups and in detecting and measuring *trans* unsaturation in fatty acids. One *trans* bond produces characteristic absorption at 970 cm^{-1} . For non-conjugated polyenoic acids, the effect is roughly additive so that linelaidic acid will have an absorption band at the same position as elaidic acid with increased intensity. Conjugated polyene systems with one more *trans* bond show a shift in the position of adsorption. Other particular values in the detection of unusual functional groups are 1724 (carbonyl), 3448 (hydroxyl), 1852 and 1010 (cyclopropenoid), 826 and 848 (epoxide), 2222 and 1961 (allene), 952 (conjugated enyne system) and 2240 (nitrile group) cm^{-1} . The use of NMR and mass spectrosopies in the structure determination of fatty acid is described in Part II of the thesis.

Ideally, individual pure fatty acids (usually in the form of the methyl ester derivatives) should be isolated by chromatographic procedures and examined first by non-destructive spectroscopic

techniques before chemical degradative procedures are applied. For example, adsorption chromatography will separate normal fatty acids from those containing polar functional groups. Silver nitrate chromatography can be used to segregate fatty acids according to the number and geometrical configurations of their double bonds; a portion of each fraction should be hydrogenated so that the lengths of the carbon chain of the components can be confirmed. The position and configuration of double bond (s) may be determined by spectroscopic (principally IR and NMR spectroscopy) and oxidative degradation procedures. Appropriate spectroscopic and chemical techniques must also be used to detect and locate any other functional groups.

Epoxides are indicated by their TLC and GLC behavior and confirmed by the IR and NMR spectroscopy. The position of an epoxide group can also be determined by mass spectroscopy of the epoxy ester or after conversion to a number of derivatives including the O - methyl, O-trimethyl Silyl ether. The readiness, with which epoxides undergo cleavage directly with periodic acid or after ring opening to the diol, is the basis of a simple degradation procedure.

The chemical methods are to be employed in almost all the cases for an unambiguous characterization of the fatty acids, inspite of the development of chromatographic and spectroscopic techniques. The

chemical methods generally used are hydrogenation, hydroxylation, oxidative degradation, partial hydrogenation and partial oxidation, hydrogen bromide reaction, addition of dienophiles like maleic anhydride (Diel's Alder reaction). Besides these reactions some specific procedures have been found to be more useful for solving special types of structural problems. These include HBr titration of oil before and after reduction by LiAlH_4 , cleavage of saturated acid by solid KMnO_4 , dehydration of dienol to all *trans* triene acids by treatment with glacial acetic acid, reduction of secondary alcoholic groups – CHOH – to – CH_2 – by HI and P, reductive removal of hydroxyl group by the reduction of the tosylate with LiAH_4 followed by oxidative degradation of unsaturated acid by permanganate periodate and lipoxidase catalyzed isomerization to conjugated acids.

B. PRESENT WORK

Fatty acid analysis of indigenous seed oils

About half a century ago, our knowledge of the composition, structure and biochemistry of lipids was meagre indeed. The recent major developments have been due mainly to the availability of new analytical and chromatographic techniques. A survey of the literature on seed oil composition indicates that most of the oils analyzed earlier by classical methods are now found to contain less familiar acids possessing a variety of function groups. The older methods of studying fatty acid composition of oils were inadequate to detect very minor component of fatty acid.

Vegetable oils constitute an important part of human diet from their various industrial applications. Demand for these oils has been rapidly increasing with improvement in general standard of living, increase in population and technological advances but the supply has not increased in the same proportion thus creating increasing gap. It is well-known that we are an edible oil deficient country. The per capita availability of oils and fats is only 3.2 kg compared to 22 kg recommended on nutritional grounds. From being an oil exporting country in 1966, India today has become seriously dependent on edible oil imports. The acute scarcity and rising prices of vegetable oils for edible purposes and industrial use had stimulated research in the screening of oil-bearing seeds from wild plants for finding nontraditional

sources of vegetable oils. It is now realized that systematic screening of indigenous seed oils may discover oils containing either a high concentration of one of the common natural fatty acids or less common or unknown acid having a structure of scientific interest.

With this viewpoint a preliminary study of a wide range of seed oils, derived mainly from tropical areas, was undertaken in the hope of finding some of commercial value. As a byproduct of this activity it was expected that fatty acids of novel structure which could be of academic interest having practical value also, might be discovered. A wide range 121-123, 38, 46,52-54,70,71,84-88,124-13^y of seed oils derived mainly from seeds of herbaceous and wild plants have been investigated for their component fatty acids. Prominent amongst these are oils of *Hiptage benghalensis*⁵²; *Wrightia tinctoria*⁵³, *W. tomentosa*⁵³, and *W. coccinea*⁵⁴; *Leucas cephalotus*³⁸; *sida species*⁸⁴, *Peganum harmala*⁷¹ and *Baliospermum axillare*⁷¹, and *Vernonia roxburghii*⁴⁶ which were found to contain ricinoleic, isoricinoleic alenic, sterculic and malvalic, new dihydroxy, and a new epoxy fatty acid respectively as their unusual fatty components inn major or minor amounts. Some Sapindaceae^{121,123}, and species were found to contain a non-glycerol cyanogenetic lipid in the seed oils. In continuation of this programme the present wok describes the seed

properties, oil characteristics, and the fatty acid composition of few seed oils belonging to different botanical families.

Seed oils from ten species belonging to nine botanical families have been analyzed for their fatty acid composition (Table II) using chromatographic & spectroscopic technique. The possibility for the presence of unusual characters like conjugated polyunsaturation and *trans* unsaturation was ruled out with help of UV and IR analysis. Various TLC techniques revealed the absence of oxygenated and / or other unusual functional group.

Ester gave clear spots on argentation TLC¹⁴⁰ corresponding to the saturates, monoene, diene and triene (Table) parallel to those from authentic linseed ester resolved alongside. Presence of C₂₀ monoene was detected in one seed oil (Item 2 Table II). The presence of C₁₆ and C₁₈, saturated acids in all the esters along with C₁₀, C₁₂, C₁₄, and C₂₂ saturated acids in some species was established with the help of reversed – phase TLC¹⁴². The quantitation of fatty acids as their methyl esters was carried out by GLC analysis long polar and non – polar column (DEGS, 15 % and SE – 30, 20 %) and by measuring the peak area by integral method. Identification of each acid was made by comparing its retention time with that of a standard sample run under the same conditions. The results of

the quantitative – direct, reversed-phase and argentation TLC supported the findings of GLC analysis.

The total content of saturated acids varied from 7.5–75.7%. All the oils contained palmitic and stearic acids, combined content ranging 7.5 – 31.7 %. Seed oils of *Tabernaemontana coronaria*, *S. sesban* and *Jatropha gossypifolia* (Item 10 Table II) were found to contain palmitic acid as high as 21.3, 26.1 and 31.4% respectively. The stearic acid was present to the maximum of 4.8% in *S. sesban* (Item 3, Table II). In the combined content of palmitic and stearic acids; palmitic acid was found to be present as a major component in all samples which is the usual pattern of distribution of palmitic and stearic acids. Other than C₁₆ and C₁₈ saturated acids C₈, C₁₀, C₁₂, C₁₄, and C₂₂ saturated acids were also found to be present in various species in minor amounts. The C_{14:0} acid (myristic) was comparatively more frequent, found in four species examined (item 3,7,8 and 10 Table II) C_{22:0} acid (behanic acid) was found to be occurring in one species only (item Table II) to the extent of 8.0. Seed oil of *Jatropha gossypifolia* contained the maximum amount of saturated acids (73.8 %). C₁₈ – unsaturated acids ranged 26.2 - 88.5 %. Among the C₁₈ – unsaturated acids oleic and linoleic acids were found to be the most frequently occurring acids rather than linolenic acid which was present as minor constituent (2.3 %) in one species only (item 6,

Table II). The combined content of & oleic acid and linoleic acid was found to vary in the region 26.2 – 85.2 % in all the ten seed oils.

Centaurea moschata and *Semecarpus anacardium* contained 85.2 % and 84.3 % of oleic – linoleic acids respectively. A moderately high percentage (27.1) of C₂₀ monoenoic acid (Eicos-11-enoic) was found to be occurring in *D. ajacis* (item 2, Table II).

Four species namely *C. moschata*, *S. sesban*, *Tragia involucrata* and *Semecarpus anacardium* yielded linoleic rich seed oils containing 36.5 % - 66.2 % of linoleic acid. *Tabernaemntana Coranaria* also contained a prominent amount of linoleic acid (23.1 %).

The *D. ajacis* yielded oleic – rich (46.5 %) seed oil accompanied by eicos-cis-11-enoic acids in major proportion (27.1 %). Oils from *Sesamum indicum* which contain 41.8 % of linoleic acid with little linolenic acid may be grouped as ‘Semi-drying oil whilst *D. ajacis*, *S. sesban*, *Semecarpus anacardium* and *Jatropha gossypifolia* which contain less of linoleic acid (below 40 %) and no linolenic acid belonged to the class of “non-drying” oils. *C. moschat* and *Tragia involucrata* seed oils may be classified as “drying oils” – containg 69.0 – 70.1 % linoleic and linolenic.

As the linolenic acid is not an essential ingredient of "drying oil"
so long as sufficient linoleic is present, the oil from mentioned species
may possibly find use as a linoleic - rich drying oil.

TABLE I

Source	Seed Analysis			Oil Properties		
	Oil content [0 %]	Protein content [Nx 6.25 %]	Moisture [0 %]	I.V. ^a	S.V ^b	Ref. Index n_D^{20}
1. <i>Centaurea moschata</i> (Compositae)	20.1	18.0	9.2	145.0	195.0	1.4870
2. <i>Delphinium ajacis</i> (Ranunculaceae)	32.0	20.2	8.5	98.0	185.1	1.4770
3. <i>Sesbania sesban</i> (Leguminosae)	7.8	24.4	7.0	86.0	205.0	1.4835
4. <i>Justicia adhatoda</i> (Acanthaceae)	26.2	55.6	5.6	109.7	169.8	1.4755
5. <i>Tabernaemontane coronaria</i> (Apocynaceae)	41.6	26.0	7.2	99.5	153.0	1.4805
6. <i>Sesamum indicum</i> (Pedaliaceae)	28.6	25.6	6.6	119.5	146.0	1.4680
7. <i>Cynocephalum zeylanicum</i> (Boraginaceae)	28.0	25.6	6.3	108	160	1.4870
8. <i>Tragia involucrata</i> (Euphorbiaceae)	27.0	26.6	6.6	129	151	1.4750
9. <i>Semecarpus anacardium</i> (Anacardiaceae)	38.20	21.4	10.0	105.6	160.7	1.4650
10. <i>Jatropha gossypifolia</i> (Euphorbiaceae)	28.42	27.7	9.7	24.7	235.6	1.4882

^a = Iodine value^b = Saponification value.

TABLE II

Source	Methyl ester composition,						0 % by GLC	
	14:0	16:0	18:0	18:1	18:2	18:3	Others	
1. <i>Centaurea moschata</i>	-	9.4	1.5	19.0	66.2	3.9	-	
2. <i>Delphinium ajacis</i> (Ranunculaceae)	-	6.5	1.0	46.5	18.9	-	20:1(27.1)	
3. <i>Sesbania sesban</i> (Leguminosae)	8.7	26.1	4.8	23.9	36.5	-	-	
4. <i>Justicia adhatoda</i>	-	5.5	0.6	80.0	5.2	3.3	18:4 (5.4%)	
5. <i>Tabernaemontana coronaria</i>	-	21.3	0.5	50.5	23.1	4.6	-	
6. <i>Sesamum indicum</i> (Pedaliaceae)	-	10.5	2.3	42.3	41.8	2.3	12:0 (0.8%)	
7. <i>Cynoglossum zeylanicum</i> (Boraginaceae)	0.4	11.8	2.8	33.5	20.0	10.5	20:0, 10:3	
							22:0, 8:0	
8. <i>Tragia involucrata</i>	2.4	10.6	2.4	15.8	61.7	7.3	-	
9. <i>Semecarpus anacardium</i>	-	14.1	1.4	46.6	37.5	-	-	
10. <i>Jatropha gossypifolia</i>	-	31.4	0.3	26.2	-	-	8:0;(5.0)	
								10:0;(10.5)
								12:0;(5.5)
								14:0;(20.9)

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

(1) Source of oilseeds: The seeds used as sources of oils for the present study, were procured from various sources, including established commercial suppliers, and mostly from collection of wild plants especially grown in the states of U.P. and Rajasthan.

(2) Oil extraction: Cleaned, dry samples of seeds were usually ground in a disintegrator. The powdered seeds were extracted exhaustively with petroleum ether (bp 40-60°) in a Soxhlet apparatus until no more oil was available. The solvent was removed at reduced pressure under nitrogen find out the oil content of the seeds. The crude oil was neutralized by passing it (~1 g) in chloroform solution, through a short column of alumina (~10 g). Seed and oil properties viz. moisture content, iodine value, saponification value, refractive index determined by AOCS methods¹⁴². Nitrogen (crude protein) of the defatted seeds was also determined by the AOCS procedure¹⁴².

(3) Preparation of mixed fatty acids: Seed oil was refluxed with ethanolic potassium hydroxide. The unsaponifiable matter was removed and the free fatty acids were obtained in the usual manner. Wherever necessary, saponification was carried out under nitrogen and samples were stored at low temperature in a nitrogen atmosphere.

(4) Preparation of methyl esters: Esterifications were carried out as follows, except where specified. Fatty acid samples were refluxed for 1 hr in a large excess of absolute methanol containing 1 % sulphuric acid (V / V). In each case, resulting mixtures were diluted to the cloud point with water, chilled in an ice bath, and then extracted repeatedly with ether. Combined extracts were dried over sodium sulphate, and filtered and the solvent was removed with the aid of a water aspirator.

(5) Thin layer chromatography: TLC analyses of the oil as well as the methyl esters were done on plates coated with 0.25 mm or 1.0 mm thick layers of silica gel G or 20 % silver nitrate impregnated Silica Gel G with 20 % or 30 % ether in hexane as the developing solvent. For reversed-phase TLC, the dried, coated plates were uniformly impregnated with Silicone oil (E. Merck). Solvent system acetonitrile-acetic acid-water (70: 10: 20; V / V/ V) was used for development. Layers of Silica Gel G 1 mm thick and hexane-ether (85: 15; V / V) were used for preparative TLC of the esters. After preparative paltes were sprayed with 2, 7 - dichlorofluorescein, bands were visualised under ultraviolet light; then the separated components were recovered by the usual procedure. The spots on all analytical TLC plates were visualised by charring the plates at 120° after they had been sprayed with a saturated solution of chromium trioxide in 50 % aqueous sulphuric acid.

(6) Gas – liquid Chromatography: GLC analysis of methyl esters were carried out as described by Miwa¹⁴³. A Perkin-Elmer Model 154, equipped with thermal conductivity detector, using stainless steel packed column (2m x 3 mm) coated with diethyleneglycol succinate (DEGS, 15 % as chromosorb, w, 45 – 60 mesh) and a 60 cm x 4 mm column of Silicone (SE – 30, 20 %). Temperature at the injection port, dectector block, and column were 290⁰, 260⁰ chart speed 0.76 m/hr with a hydrogen flow of 70 ml / min.

Linseed oil methyl ester was used as an standard, for internal standardization. Pure samples of lipid standards were purchased from Sigma chemical company, U.S.A.

(7) Infraerd: IR spectra were determined with Perkin-Elmer Model 621 spectrophotometer as liquid film or as 1 % solution in carbon tetrachloride or carbon disulphide.

(8) Ultraviolet: A Beckman DK-2A instrument was used to determine UV spectra in methanol.

**Cynolipid Studies of *Sapindus obovatus* and Reinvestigation of
Dodonea Viscosa (Sapindaceae) *Heliotropium indicum* and *H. eichwaldi*
(Boraginaceae) seed oils**

Cyanolipids are not glycerides but instead are derivatives of five-carbon mono-or dihydroxynitrile moiety esterified with long-chain fatty acids. Sporadic reports have appeared recently regarding the co-occurrence of cyanogenic nonglycerol esters with seed oil triglycerides. Way back to 1920, probably cyanolipids were first observed in *Schleichera trijuga* (Sapindaceae) seed oil by Rosenthaler¹ and Sen-Gupta². But the exact location of the cyanogenic compound in the oil or its exact nature was not reported. The compound has been suspected to be in the form of a cyanogenic glucoside or an acid amide¹⁵. Later, Kundu and Bandyopadhyay³ reinvestigated the same seed oil to ascertain the location and nature of the cyanogenic compound by applying chemical methods, chromatography and infrared spectroscopy. Observations indicated the cyanogenic compound to be a part of glyceride molecules in which one of the hydroxyl groups of the latter is bonded to the cyanogenic compound through an ether linkage. Chromatographic behaviour of the isolated cyanogenic compounds further indicated that at least two glyceride molecules are involved. These glycerides are predominantly esterified with saturated acids. At the same time Kasbekar

and Bringi⁸ working on the same seed oil found with the help of TLC that the oil is composed of approximately 37% of glyceride, the rest being nonglycerol esters of fatty acids. Recent Studies^{10-14,16-18} have shown that the cyanogenic material is a nonglycerol ester composed of one or two ordinary fatty acid moieties (predominantly C₂₀) esterified with an unsaturated isoprenoid hydroxy-or dihydroxynitrile. Four types of cyanolipids (I to IV) present individually or in pairs have been identified in the seed lipids of Sapindaceae species. The presence of cyanolipids has been reported in *Cardiospermum canescens* (Sapindaceae)¹²¹, *Dodonea viscosa* (Sapindaceae)¹²³ and two species of *Heliotropium* (Boraginaceae)¹²².

The present work deals with the isolation, identification and composition of one such cyanolipid, namely, the fatty acid diester of 1-cyano-2-hydroxymethylprop-1-ene-3-ol (II) (16% W/W), in the seed oil of *sapindus obovatous colebr.* Altough the nitrogen-containing lipid fraction (NCLF) is nonhomogeneous, the constituents differ only in the attached fatty acids; hence, this mixture was treated as a single entity throughout this investigation. The fatty composition of the cyanolipid component was also compared with that of triglycerides.

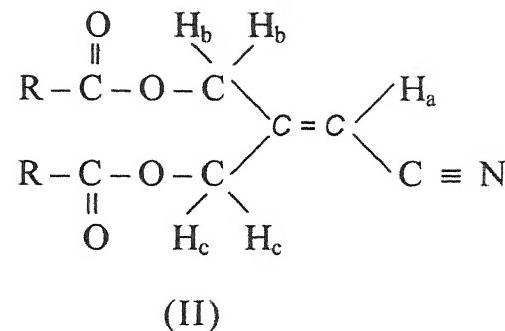
Sapindus obovatous seed kernels contained 16% of oil. Preliminary TLC analysis of the seed oil using soyabean oil as standard revealed the

presence of unusual components. The oil gave the positive picrate and prussian blue colour tests. Elemental analysis showed the presence of 2.2% of nitrogen. On Silica Gel G TLC, the oil gave two spots (triglycerides, R_f , 0.77 and cyanolipid, R_f , 0.52%) using hexane-ether-acetic acid (85:15:1, V/V/V) as solvent system but only a single spot with benzene. The oil was resolved into a triglyceride fraction (80%, W/W) and a cyanolipid fraction (20%, W/W) by preparative TLC using ether-hexane (1:3) as developing solvent.

Treatment of NCLF with dilute base generated HCN as shown by positive picrate¹⁴³ and Prussian blue⁹⁵ tests. The structure of the cyanolipid derived from *Sapindus obovatous* seed oil was established by a comparison of its TLC, IR and NMR data with those reported for the corresponding cyanolipid present in the seed oil of Sapindaceae. On running a co-TLC of the isolated NCLF with the cyanolipid of *Cardiospermum halicacabum* seed oil, it was observed that the NCLF exactly corresponded to the minor cyanolipid constituent of the standard oil. This TLC behaviour suggested that the cyanolipid is likely to be a diester of 1-cyano-2-hydroxymethylprop-1-ene-3-ol. The IR (1% solution in CS₂) analysis of the NCLF revealed a nitrile band of medium intensity at 2220 (C≡N) cm⁻¹ and the IR spectrum was superimposable on the spectrum of corresponding cyanolipid isolated from *C. halicacabum* seed

oil. The NMR spectrum of the cyanogenetic lipid material from oil was particularly informative with regards to the structural features of the nitrile-containing moiety. The NMR spectrum of the cyanolipid revealed porton counts, chemical shifts and multiplicities identical with those displayed by reference sample of fatty acid diester of 1-cyano-2-hydroxymethyl prop-1-ene-3-ol isolated from *C. halicacabum* seed oil. The NMR spectrum exhibited signals characteristic for long-chain lipid groups, τ . 9.12 (rough t, 3H, terminal methyl), 8.75 (br s, shielded methylene), 8.05-7.97 (m, protons α to the double bond), 7.67 (t, protons α to the carbonyl function) and 4.7 (rough t, olefinic protons). The two sets of methylene portons H_b and H_c (II) which are adjacent to the oxygen atoms of the dihydroxynitrile moiety, gave the signals at τ 5.83 and 5.93. This difference in shielding is caused by the stereochemistry of the methylene groups; one of them is *cis* to the nitrile grouping and the other is *trans*. As a result of the sterochemical difference between the two methylene groups, the protons of one group couple more strongly with the vinyl proton (τ 4.45) than to protons of the other methylene group. The cyanohydrin proton (H_a) appeared as a slightly broadened singlet at τ 4.45. The comparative TLC and IR characteristics coupled with NMR data established that the cyanolipid present in the oil is a fatty acid diester

of 1-cyano-2-hydroxymethyl porp-1-ene-3-ol identical to the minor NCLF of *C. halicacabum*.



The lipid groups of the triglycerides as well as cyanolipid constituent of the oil (Table III) were identified by converting them to their methyl esters by trans esterification or acid-catalyzed methylation and comparing the methyl esters by GLC with authentic standard. On comparing it was found that a higher proportion of C₂₀ acids occur in the cyanolipids than in the triglycerids.

TABLE III

Fraction	Fatty acid Composition								
	16:0	18:0	18:1	18:2	18:3	20:0	20:1	22:0	
Triglyceride	14.6	2.4	46.5	18.0	6.0	7.0	4.3	1.2	
Cyanolipid	5.0	2.0	45.0	10.0	3.0	9.0	24.0	2.0	

Because of its basically isoprenoid structure, the dihydroxynitrile moiety of NCLF has many biogenetic possibilities. It may be related, perhaps somewhat remotely, to biological compounds such as cordycepose¹⁴⁵ or mevaldic acid¹⁴⁶. However, rather extensive studies made on the biosynthesis of other cyanogenetic materials¹⁹⁻²¹ indicate that most of them are derived from amino acids of their precursors.

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

Oil recovery and Methyl ester formation

Oil was recovered from finely ground seed by a 16 hr extraction with petroleum ether (bp 40-60°C) in a Soxhlet apparatus. The methyl esters were prepared using 1% NaOMe in MeOH or acid-catalyzed methylation.

Apparatus

Infrared (IR) spectra were determined with Perkin-Elmer Model 621 spectrophotometers on 1% solutions in CS₂, CHCl₃ or CCl₄. Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra were taken in CCl₄. All reported chemical shifts are measured from internal tetramethyl silane (TMS) = τ 10.0. A Beckman DK - 2A instrument was used to determine UV spectra.

GLC analyses of methyl esters were performed essentially as described by Miwa and coworkers¹⁴³ by using stainless steel packed

column (2m x 3 mm) coated with diethylene glycol succinate (DEGS, 15% on chromosorb, W, 45-60 mesh). A Perkin Elmer Model 154 vapour Fractometer was employed in these analyses and the separations were carried out isothermally at 200°C, with a hydrogen flow rate of 70 ml/min.

Thin – Layer chromatography

Thin-layer chromatography (TLC) was done on 0.25 mm layers of Silica Gel G developed with solvent system of benzene or hexane-ether-acetic acid (85 : 15 : 1, V/V/V). Spots were detected by charring the plates after they had been sprayed with a saturated solution of CrO₃ in 50% aqueous H₂SO₄. The oil was resolved into a triglyceride fraction and a cyanolipid fraction by preparative TLC. For preparative TLC separation plates 20 x 40 cm with Silica Gel G layers, 1mm thick were used. The solvent was ether-hexane (1:2,V/V).The spots were detected by spraying with an alcoholic solution of 2¹, 7¹,- dichlorofluorescein and viewing them under ultraviolet (UV) light. Desired constituents were recovered from the silica by standard procedures and the purity of the fractions was checked by analytical TLC.

Formation and detection of HCN

Two tests were used to detect HCN derived from seed oil and NCLF. One of these, the picrate test, depends on the reaction of HCN with alkaline picrate solution to produce isopurpuric acid.⁹⁷ About 75-100 mg of lipid material was placed in a test tube with 1 ml of dilute NaOH or H₂SO₄. A strip of filter paper dipped in an alkaline solution of sodium picrate (0.5%) was partially dried and was then suspended over the mixture in the stoppered test tube. Test tube and contents were warmed at 35-50⁰ for 0.5-1 hr. A positive test involves a colour change of the filter paper from yellow to brick red¹⁴⁴.

The second test involved formation of Prussian blue⁹⁶. Material to be tested was placed in a 50 ml Erlenmeyer flask with 2 ml of methanol and either 1 ml of 10% NaOH or 1 ml of 6N H₂SO₄. If NaOH was used the mixture was heated a few minutes in hot water bath and acidified with H₂SO₄. A filter paper moistened with NaOH solution was placed over the mouth of the flask and the flask was warmed 5-10 min. After the filter paper was removed, it was treated with three drops of 5% ferrous sulfate solution and, when nearly dry, with 10% HCl. An intense Prussian blue colour indicated a positive test for cyanide.

C. REFERENCES

References:-

1. L. Rosenthaler, Schweiz Apoth. Ztg. 58, 17-20 (1920); Chem. Abstr. 14, 556 (1920).
2. N.N. Sengupta, J.Soc. Chem. Ind. 39, 88 (1920) ; chem., Abstr., 14, 2011(1920).
3. M.H. Coleman, J.Am. Oil Chem. Soc., 42, 751-754 (1965).
4. D.N. Dhar. Fette Seifen Anstrichm., 70, 942-943 (1968).
5. S.N. Koley, M.D. Kundu and A.N. Saha, Indian oil Soqp J., 30, 321-326 (1965); Chem. Abstr. 64, 14430 n (1166).
6. B.Sreenivasan, J.Am. Oil chem. Soc., 45, 259-265 (1968).
7. M.K. Kundu and C. Bandyopadhyay, J.Am. Oil chem. Soc., 46, 23-27 (1969)
8. M.G. Kasbekar and N.V. Bringi., bid., 46, 183 (1969).
9. K.L.Mikolajczak, C.R. Smith, (Jr.), Lipids 6, 349 (1971).
- 10.K.L. Mikolajczak C.R. Smith, Jr.and L.W. Tjarks, Biochem. Biophys. Acta 210, 306 (1970).
- 11.Idem, Lipids 5, 672 (1970).
- 12.D.S. Seigler, K.L. Mikolajczak, C.R. Smith, Jr. and I.A wolff, Chem. Phys. Lipids, 4, 147 (1970).

- 13.D.S. Seigler, F. Seaman, and T.J. Mabry, Photo chemistry, 10, 485 (1971).
- 14.K.L. Mikajczak, C.R. Jr. And L.W. Tjarks, Lipids, 5, 812 (1970).
- 15.R.L. Datta, T.Basu and P.K. Ghosh, Indian Soop J., 16, 71 (1950).
- 16.K.L. Mikojczak, D.S. Seigler, C.R. Smith, Jr. and R.B. Bates, Lipids, 4, 617 (1969).
- 17.D.S. Seigler, Phytochem., 13, 841 (1974).
- 18.G.Gowri Kumar, V.V.S. Mani and Lakshminarayana, Phyto chem., 15, 1566 (1976).
- 19.G.W. Butler and B.G. Butler, Nature, 187, 780 (1960).
- 20.S. Ben-Yehoshua and E.E. Conn, Plant Phys., 39, 331 (1964).
- 21.G.W. Butler, E.E. Conn, J. Biol.Chem., 239, 1674 (1964).
- 22.S.Q. Hasan, Y.A. Roomi and Ms. Chitra Nigam, J.Oil Tech. Assn. India 26, 77 (1994).
- 23.S.Q, Hasan, and Y.A. Roomi, J., Oil Tech. Assn. India, 28, 33 (1996).
- 24.Y.A. Roomi, V.K. Srivastava and S.Q. Hasan J. Oil Tech. Assn India, 30, 65 (1998).

25. Sarita Rawat, Geeta Nigam, V.K. Srivastava, Syed Nafeesul Hasan and S.Q. Hasan, J. Oil Tech. Assn. India 34, 69 (2002).
26. C.R. Smith, in "Progress in the Chemistry of fats and other Lipids", Vol.2, ed by R.T. Holman, Pergaman Press, Londan, 139 (1970).
27. R.V. Madrigal, and C.R. Smith, Jr., Lipids, 10, 502 (1975).
28. R.D. Plattner, G.F. Spencer, and R.Kleiman, ibid., 10 413 (1975).
29. D.P. Ronald, and K. Robert, Phytochem., 16, 225 (1977).
30. G.F. Spencer, R. Kleiman, R.W. Miller, and F.R. Earle, Lipids, 6, 712 (1971).
31. F. Ahmad, Ph.D. Thesis, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh (1977).
32. S.P. Lighthelm, H.M. Schwartz, J.Am. Chem. Soc., 72, 1868 (1950).
33. S.P. Lighthelm, H.M. Schwartz, and M.M. Von Holdt, J. Chem. Soc., 1088 (1952).
34. M.B. Pearl, R. Kleiman, and F.R. Earle, Lipids, 8, 627 (1973).
35. M.O. Bagby, C.R. Smith, Jr., and I.A. Wolff, J. Org. Chem., 30, 4227 (1965).
36. K.L. Mikoljczak, M.F. Rogers, C.R. Smith., Jr. and I.A. Wolff, Biochem. J., 105, 1245 (1967).

- 37.J.M. Hageman, F.R. Earle, I.A. Wolff, and A.S. Barclay, *Lipids*, 2, 371 (1967).
- 38.S. Sinha, A.A. Ansari, and S.M. Osman, *Chem. Ind.*, 67 (1978).
- 39.C.R. Smith, Jr., in "Progres in the Chemistry of Fats and other Lipids", Vol. 11, ed. by R.T. Holman, Pergamon Press, 137 (1970).
- 40.R. Kleiman, G.F. Spencer, L.W. Tjarks, and F.R. Earle, *Lipids*, 6, 617 (1971).
- 41.H.B.S. Conacher, and F.D. Gunnstose, *ibid.*, 5, 137 (1970).
- 42.A.K. Sen Gupta, *Fette, Seifen, Anstrichmittel*, 76, 440 (1974).
- 43.F.D. Gunstone, *J. Chem. Soc.*, 1611 (1954).
- 44.R. Kleiman, R.D. Plattner, and G.F. Spencer, *Lipids*, 12, 610 (1977).
- 45.G.F. Spencer, *Phytochem.*, 16, 282 (1977).
- 46.S.K. Husain, Ph.D. Thesis, Aligarh muslim University, Aligarh (1978).
- 47.S.Q. Hasan, M.R.K. Sherwani, I Ahmad, *Chem. Soc.*, 57, 970 (1980).
- 48.C.R. Smith, Jr. and I.A. Wolff, *Lipids*, 49 (1969).
- 49.L.J. Morris, and S.W. Hall, *Chem. Ind.*, 32 (1967).

- 50.M.B. Bhannan, and R.Kleiman, *Lipids*, *10*, 703 (1975).
- 51.F.D. Gunstone, *J.Chem. Soc.*, 1274 (1952).
- 52.I.A. Siddiqui, S.M. Osman, M.R. Subbaram and K.T. Achaya, *Chem. Ind.*, 988 (1969).
- 53.F.H. Ansari, G.A. Qazi, S.M. Osman, and M.R. Subbaram, *Ind. J. Appl. Chem.*, *34*, 157 (1971).
- 54.(Miss) S.F. Siddiqui, F. Ahmad, M.S. Siddiqui, and S.M. Osman, *Chem., Ind* (1979).
- 55.L.J. Moris, R.T. Holman, and K. Fontell, *J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc.*, *37*, 323 (1960).
- 56.M.J. Chisholm, and C.Y. Hoplans, *Can. J. Chem.*, *38*, 2500 (1960).
- 57.S.P. Ligthelm, *chem. Ind.*, 249 (1954).
- 58.R.W. Miller, D. Weisleder, R. Kleiman, R.D. Plattner, and C.R. Smith, Jr., *Phytochem.*, *16*, 947 (1977).
- 59.R.G. Powell, C.R. Smith, Jr., and I.A. Wolff, *J. Am. Oil Chem.. Soc.*, *42*, 165 (1965).
- 60.Idem, *J. Org. Chem.*, *31*, 528 (1966).
- 61.R.G. Powell, and C.R. Smith, Jr., *Biochem. J.*, *5*, 625 (1966).
- 62.Idem, *Chem. Ind.*, 470 (1965).

- 63.K.T. Achaya, and J.S. Aggarwal, *ibid.*, 1616 (1962).
- 64.R. Kleiman, G.F. Spencer, F.R. Earle, H.J. Nieschlag, and A.S. Barclay, *Lipids*, 7, 660 (1972).
- 65.B.E. Phillips, C.R. Smith, Jr., and L.W. Tjarks, *J. Org. Chem.*, 35, 1916 (1970).
- 66.M.F. Keogh, and M.E. Zurita, *Phytochem.*, 16, 134 (1977).
- 67.M.F. Keogh, and I. Duran, *ibid.*, 16, 16.5 (1977).
- 68.C. Rukmini, *J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc.*, 52, 171 (1975).
- 69.F.D. Gunstone, J.A. Holliday, and C.M. Scrimgeour, *Chem. Phys. Lipids*, 20, 331 (1977).
- 70.I. Ahmad, F.Ahmad, and S.M. Osman, *Phytochem.*, 16, 1761 (1977).
- 71.S.Husain, M.U. Ahmad, and S.M. Osman, *ibid.* 1560 (1979).
- 72.C.R. Smith, Jr. *Lipids*, 1, 267 (1966).
- 73.L.J. Morris, M.O. Marshall, and W. Kally, *Tetrahedron Lette.*, 4249 (1966).
- 74.R.L. Glass, T.P. Krick, A.E. Eckhardt, *Lipids*, 9, 1004 (1974).
- 75.R.L. Glass, T.P. Krick, D.M. Sand, C.H. Rahn, and H. Schlenk, *ibid.*, 10, 695 (1975).

- 76.R.L. Glass, T.P. Krick, D.L. Olson, and R.L. Thorson, *ibid.*, *12*, 828 (1977).
- 77.K.L. Mickolajczak, R.M. Friedinger, C.R. Simth, Jr., and I.A. Wolff, *ibid.*, *3*, 489 (1968).
- 78.A.K. Sen-Gupta, *Chem. Ind.*, 257 (1972).
- 79.R.Kleiman, F.R. Earle, and I.A. Wolff, *Lipids*, *4*, 317 (1969).
- 80.J.R. Nunn, *J. Chem. Soc.*, 313 (1952).
- 81.J.J. Mac Farlane, F.S. Shenstone, and J.R. Vickery, *Nature, Land.*, *179*, 830 (1957).
- 82.B.M. Craven, and G.A. Jeffrey, *ibid.*, *183*, 676 (1959).
- 83.A.W. Jevans, and C.Y. Hopkins, *Tetrahedron Lett.*, 2167 (1968).
- 84.M.U. Ahmad, S.K. Husain, M. Ahmad, S.M. Osman, and R.Subbarao, *J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc.*, *53*, 698 (1976).
- 85.M.V. Ahmad, S.K. Husain, and S.M. Osman, *J. Sci. Fd. Agric.*, *29*, 372 (1978).
- 86.S. Husain, M. Babu, M.U. Ahmad, A.A. Ansari, and S.M. Osman, *Fette, Seifen, Anstichmittel* *190* (1979).
- 87.M. Babu, S.Husain, M.U. Ahmad, and S.M. Osman *Fette, Seifen, Anstrichmittel*, *81*, 294 (1979).

- 88.M.S. Ahmad, Jr., M.U. Ahmad, S.M. Osman and J.A. Ballentine,
Chem. Phys. Lipids, 14, 501 (1979).
- 89.B.E. Phillipds, and C.R. Smith, Jr., Biochem. Biophys. Acta, 218 7/
(1970).
- 90.C.R. Smith, Jr., R.V. Modrigal, D.Weisleder, and R.D. Plattner,
Lipids, 12, 736 (1977).
- 91.R.W. Miller, C.R. Smith, Jr., D. Weisleder, and R.D. Plattner,
Lipids, 12, 736 (1977).
- 92.C.R. Smith, Jr., L.H. Niece, H.F. Zobel, and I. A. Wolff,
Phytochem., 3, 289 (1964).
- 93.R.V. Madrigal, G.F. Spencer, R.D. Plattner and C.R. Smith, Jr.
Lipids, 12, 402 (1977).
- 94.M.G. Kasbekar, R.R. Talekar and N.V. Bringi, Indian J. Chem., 10
244-246 (1972).
- 95.M.K. Kundu, Fette Seifen, Anstrichm., 72, 370-372 (1970).
- 96.F. Feigl, Spot Tests, Vol.1, 4th Ed., pp. 263 and 269. Elsevier,
Newyork (1954).
- 97.W. Horowitz, (Ed.) Official Methods of Analysis of the
Association of official Agricultural Chemists, 12th Ed., p. 481.

Association of official Agricultural Chemistry, Washington, D.C.
(1955).

98. T.J wood, Sci. Food Agric., 16, 300-304 (1965).
99. F. Feigl, Spot Tests, Vol.1 4th Ed., p.258 Elsevier, Newyork (1954).
100. L.J. Bellamy, The Infrared spectra of Complex Molecules,
p.225. John wiley, Newyork (1956).
101. C. Litchfield, R.D. Harlow ed R. Reiser, J.Am. Oil Chem. Soc.,
42, 849-854 (1965).
102. N.V. Riggs, and S.M. Verma, Tetrahedron Lette. 3767-3770
(1968).
103. A.J. Fioriti, and J.R. Sims., J. Chromatog ; 32, 761 (1968).
104. P.J. George, F.R. Severson, ed J.P. Freeman, ibid., 40, 78 (1969).
105. K.E. Schulte, ed G.Rucker, ibid, 49, 317 (1970).
106. C.H. Rahu, ed H. Schlenk, Lipids, 8, 612 (1973).
107. E.N. Davis, L.L. Wallen, J.C. Goodwin, W.K. Rohwedder, and
R.A. Rhodes, ibid, 4, 357 (1969).
108. F.D. Gunstan, E.G. Hammonds, H.Schuler, C.M. Srinigeour, and
(Mrs.). H.S. vedanayagam, Chem. phys. Lipids, 14, 81 (1975).
109. S.A. Howard, and A.J.P Martin, Biochem. J., 46, 532 (1962).

110. L.J. Morris, Chem., Ind., 1238 (1962).
111. G.B. Barrett, M.S.J. Dallas, and F.B. Padley, J.Am. Oil Chem. Soc., 40, 580 (1963).
112. G.B. Barrett, M.S.J. Dallar, and F.B. Padley, Chem. Ind., 1050 (1962).
113. B.de.Vries, and G.Jurriens, Fette, Seifen, Anstrich-mittel 65, 725 (1963).
114. L.J. Morris, J. Chromatog., 12, 321 (1963).
115. H.H. Hofsteller, M.Sen, and R.T. Halman, J.Am. Oil Chem, Soc., 42, 37 (1965).
116. G.R. Jamieson, in "Topics in Lipid Chemistry" Vol.1 ed. by F.D. Gunstone, Logos press, London, 107 (1970).
117. F.D. Gunstone, J.Am. Oil Chem. Soc., 50, 486 (1973).
118. C.Y. Hopkins, in "Topics in Lipid Chemistry" Vol.3,ed. by G.D. Gunstone, Paul Elek (Scientific Books), London 71 (1972).
119. F.S. Shenstone, in "Bio Chemistry and Methodology of Lipids" ed. by A.R. Johnsonand J.B. Davenport, Wiley. Interscience, Newyork, NY, 219 (1971).
120. J. Cason, R. Davis, and M.H. Sheehan, J.Org.Chem., 36, 2621 (1971).

121. David Charler, Q.G. Ali and S.M. Osman, Chemistry ed Industry, 2 (1977).
122. I. Ahmad, A.A. Ansari and S.M. Osman, Chemistry ed Industry, 19 (1978).
123. M.R.K. Sherwani, S.Q. Hasan, I. Ahmad, F. Ahmad and S.M. Osman, Chemistry and Industry, 4 (1979).
124. I.A. Siddiqui, S.M. Osman, M.R. Subbaram, and K.T. Achaya, J.Oil Tech. Assn (Indian), 5, 7 and 8 (1973).
125. G.A. Qazi, S.M. Osman, and M.R. Subbaram ibid., 5, 16 (1973).
126. Idem, ibid., 6, 16 (1974).
127. A.A. Ansari, S.M. Osman, and M.R. Subbaram, ibid., 7, 26 (1975).
128. F. Ahmad, MU. Ahmad, A. Alam, S. Sinha, and S.M. Osman, ibid, 8, 3 (1976).
129. S. Husain, Nasirullah, M.U. Ahmad, A.A. Ansari, and S.M. Osman, ibid., 9, 35 (1977).
130. M. Babu, M.S. Ahmad, (Miss) S.F. Siddiqui, A.A. Ansari, and S.M. Osman, ibid., 9, 38 (1977).

131. M.S. Ahmad, S. Sinha, M.U. Ahmad, A.A. Ansari, and S.M. Osman, *ibid.*, 10, 61 (1978).
132. I. Ahmad, M.R.K. Sherwani, S.Q. Hasan, A.A. Ansari, and S.M. Osman, *ibid.*, 10, 126 (1978).
133. S. Hussain, M. Babu, L. Ali, A.A. Ansari, ed S.M. Osman, *ibid.*, 10, 128 (1978).
134. F. Ahmad, M.U. Ahmad, I. Ahmad, A.A. Ansari, and S.M. Osman, *Fette, Seifen, Anstrichmittel*, 80, 190 (1978).
135. S.K. Husain, M.U. Ahmad, S. Sinha, A.A. Ansari, and S.M. Osman, *ibid.*, 80, 225 (1978).
136. M.S. Ahmad, M.U. Ahmad, A.A. Ansari, and S.M. Osman, *ibid.*, 80, 353 (1978).
137. S.Q. Hasan, I. Ahmad, M.R.K. Sherwani, A.A. Ansari, and S.M. Osman, *ibid.* (1979) in press.
138. Nasirullah, (Miss) S.F. Siddiqui, F. Ahmad A.A. Ansari, and S.M. Osman *ibid* (1979) in press.
139. M.U. Ahmad, S.K. Husain, A.A. Ansari, and S.M. Osman, *ibid* (1979 in press).
140. M.U. Roomi, M.A. Subbaram ed K.T. Achaya, J. Chromatog., 16, 106 (1964).

141. R. Subbarao, M.W. Roomi, S.R. Subbaram, and K.T. Achaya,
ibid, 9, 295 (1962).
142. "Official ed Tentative Methods of Analysis" Am. Oil Chem.
Soc., 3rd ed. (1971).
143. T.K. Miwa, K.L. Mikolajczak, F.R. Earle, and I.A. Wolff, Anal,
Chem., 32, 1739 (1960).
144. Official Methods of Analysis of the Association Agricultural
Chemists, 9th ed., 293 (1960).
145. H.R. Bentley, K.G. Cunningham, and F.S. Spring, J.Chem. Soc.,
2301 (1951).
146. C.H. Shunk, B.O. Linn, J.W. Huff, J.L. Gilfillan, H.R. Spcggss, ed
K.Folkers, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 79, 3294 (1957).

PART-II
REACTIONS OF NITROSYL
CHLORIDE WITH LONG-CHAIN
FATTY ACIDS AND THEIR
DERIVATIVES

A. THEORETICAL

Theoretical

We are gradually increasing our awareness and understanding of the wide variety of reactions which fatty acids undergo, especially those which are unsaturated. At a simple level one might expect that any reaction observed on short chain acid or alkene should be applicable to longer-chain substrates whether natural or synthetic.

Reactions of fatty acids in general are associated with (i) the carboxyl group and (ii) the hydrocarbon chain. During the first quarter of last century very little was known about the mechanism and stereochemistry of reactions of double bond. With the growing understanding of the mechanism of organic reactions, the controversial problems of organic chemistry were gradually solved.

Among the reactions involving the hydrocarbon chain of fatty acids those of oxidation, halogenation and hydrogenation are of fundamental importance in fat chemistry. The large variety of products resulting from these reactions of an unusual fatty acids has been the main drawback in its systematic study. The opportunities which exist require that extreme care should be taken in their preparation, isolation and in selecting the criteria of purity.

A survey of the literature reveals that the results obtained by different groups of workers at different times have led to the interpretations which are conflicting, as far as the mechanism and stereochemistry are concerned.

It is now realized that organic chemistry is to a large extent, the study of reactions of functional groups with important contribution of polar, steric, conformational and neighbouring group's effects. During the last century, new and interesting reactions of fatty acids have been described that provide new route to the synthesis of a variety of fatty acid derivatives. The growing demand of fatty chemicals as intermediate raw materials has diverted the attention of lipid chemists from the analytical aspect of fats to the chemistry of unusual fatty acids.

Most recent developments in the chemistry of fatty acids begin from 1960 to date. This period is characterized by a series of investigations on the non – classical reactions of fatty acids. These non-classical reactions include oxymercuration-demercuration, rearrangement of 1,2-epoxide, cyclodehydration (1, 4- epoxide) of hydroxyl olefinic acids, allylic halogenation and oxidation of olefinic acids, cyclopropanation and reactions leading to the synthesis of nitrogen and sulphur analogues of the oxygenated acids. The growth of organic nitrogen chemistry has been rapid, and it not only shows no signs of

abatement, but the literature has been proliferating at an increasing rate. Acids from the intellectual challenge involved in preparing novel organic nitrogen compounds of the most amazing complexity and structural ramifications, organic chemists should be deeply concerned with nitrogen compounds because of their widespread use intrinsic importance.¹

Nitrosyl chloride (NOCl) addition represents one of the simplest ways of elaborating a carbon – nitrogen bond directly from unsaturated compounds. The reaction of nitrosyl chloride with olefins has been known for almost 100 years, and an extensive wealth of literature has accumulated on this subject. Nitrosyl chloride reacts with most of the elements and with an extremely wide range of compounds. Comprehensive literature reviews²⁻⁴ have summarized the present state of knowledge and it is necessary here to highlight some of the salient features of the NOCl reaction upon organic compounds including fatty acids.

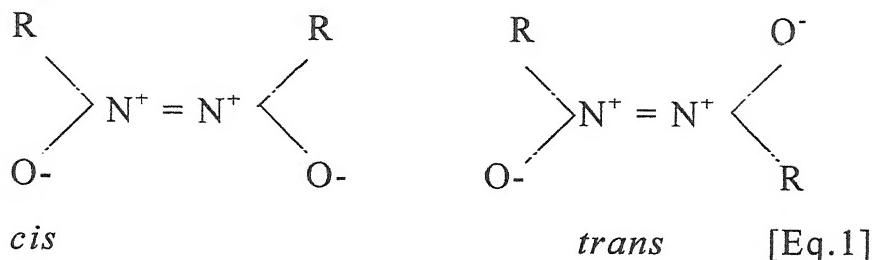
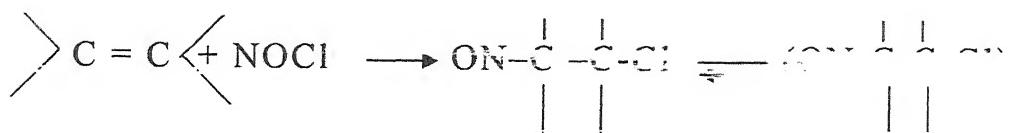
Reactions of nitrosyl chloride with carbon –to-carbon multiple bonds

The reactions of this classification involve principally the addition of nitrosyl chloride to double bonds, i.e. nitrosochlorination. During the last century less emphasis has been placed on reactions with terpenes and more study has been devoted to the applications of nitrosyl chloride in the

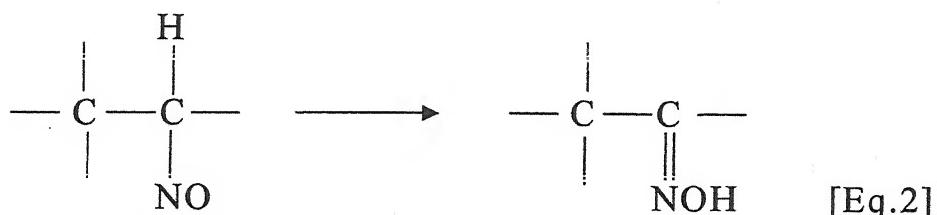
treatment of complex natural products and to its use in the synthesis of detergents and other materials.

Olefins add on nitrosyl where the chlorine atom being the negative and of the dipole in NOCl will add on to the carbon atom joined to the least number of hydrogen atoms (Markownikoff's rule).

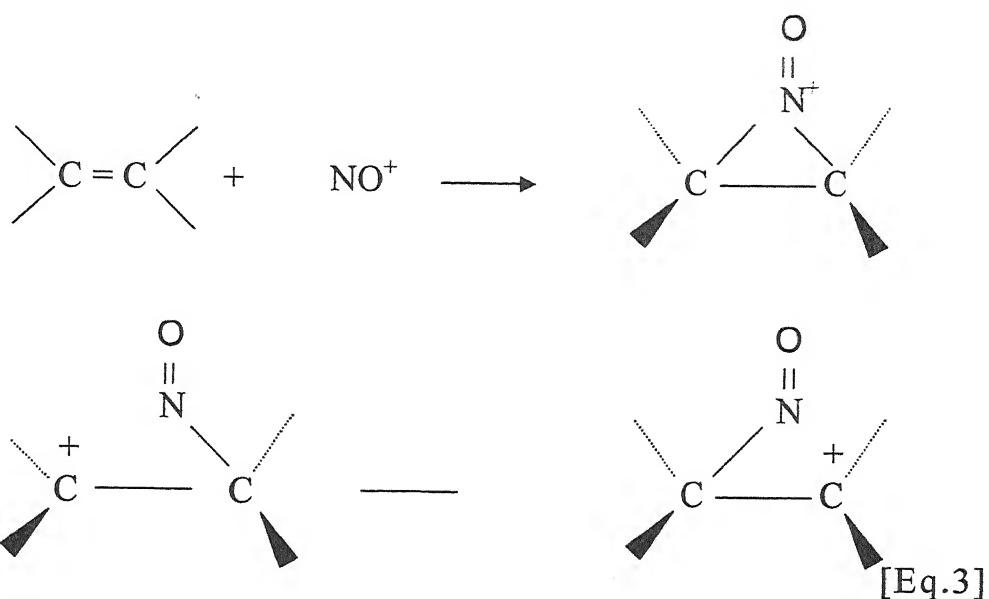
The reaction of olefins with NOCl to give nitrosochloride which dimerize if unhindered (eq.1) has been known since long³, and has played an important role in early studies of terpenes. The use of an alkynitrite and hydrochloric acid, generating the nitrosyl chloride *in situ*, provides a convenient, alternate technique for carrying out these additions. Nitroso compounds are usually blue or green liquids which dimerize to white crystalline solids often in equilibrium with the monomeric form. These bimolecular solids regenerate the monomer when fused or when dissolved in solution. Chilton *et al.* (1955) and Gowenlock *et al.* (1955)^o have found that these dimers have *cis* or *trans* configuration. Aliphatic *trans* dimers exhibit infrared absorption in the region 1290-1176 cm⁻¹ whereas *cis* dimers have absorption in the region 1420-1330 and 1344-1323 cm⁻¹. Monomeric C-nitroso compounds absorb in the region of 1498 - 1620 cm⁻¹.



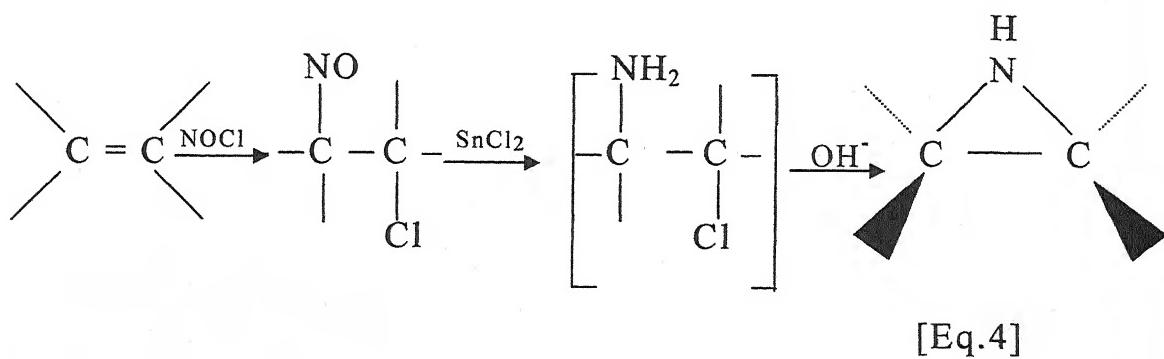
Isomerization to oximido structures yielding chlorooximes is feasible where the labile hydrogen on the carbon of nitroso group attachment is available (eq.2). The oximes are more stable since bonds between heteroatoms are always weak, and the oxime has only one such bond while nitroso has two such bonds.



Mechanism involving NO^+ and Cl^- has been generally assumed for nitrosyl chloric addition to double bond⁸⁻⁹. For example, Kaplan, Kwart, and Schleyer⁸ have suggested that nitrosyl chloride ionize to give the nitrosonium ion (NO^+) which adds to an olefin to give a highly stabilized onium ion intermediate (eq. 3), which should open to give a *trans* nitrosochloride.



A novel preparation of aziridines from tetrasubstituted olefins¹⁰, consisting of nitrosyl chloride addition followed by stannous chloride reduction (to give a chloroamine) and base cyclization (eq. 4) is consistent with this proposal.



Since a knowledge of the stereochemistry of nitrosyl halide additions should increase the synthetic utility of these reactions as well as help in elucidating their mechanisms, Meinwald et al.¹¹ studied this problem explicitly for a variety of olefins. They found that the steric

course of nitrosyl halide addition to olefins depends on the olefin structure. Thus, Δ^9 - octalin gives a trans adduct, in accord with the generally assumed ionic reaction mechanism, and it is probably that most other unstrained olefins behave similarly¹². On the other hand, the addition of nitrosyl chloride and nitrosyl- bromide to norbornene,anti-7-methoxynorbornene and norbornadiene follows as *cis* stereochemical course and is unaccompanied by molecular rearrangement¹³⁻¹⁵ suggesting that if these reactions are ionic ones, very little electron demand is made on these olefins in the transition state. There is a close similarity between the pattern of reactivity uncovered in this work and that shown in the oxymercuration reaction. Unstrained olefins undergo *trans* addition via an electrophilic mechanisms, but certain strained alkenes such as norbornene have been shown to give a *cis* - oxymercuration products¹⁶. Meinwald *et al.*¹¹ postulated a single mechanism to accommodate both cases. As a first step, the olefin would react with the nitrosyl halide to give an onium ion, as discussed above, with the cycle contributing structure being the most important. For an intermediate in which *trans* displacement of one of the C-N bonds is sterically acceptable, the cyclic intermediate is opened by attack of halide ion to give, a *trans* product. For a more constrained substrate, in which such a *trans* displacement would require a difficult twisting about a C-C bond in a relatively

inflexible system, it may be postulated that attack of halide ion from a *cis* position is more favourable, and a *cis* adduct results.

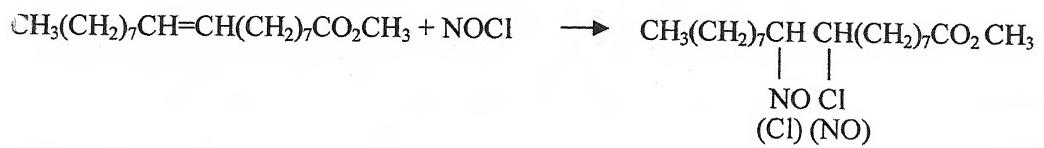
A decision between these possibilities does not seem possible on the basis of the data now available. It is hoped, however, that the demonstration of a relationship between the structure of an olefin and the stereochemistry of its derived nitrosyl halide adduct may prove useful.

In contrast to the nitrosyl chloride addition reactions which take place with olefinic groups at low temperature, chlorination or oxidation effects are obtained at elevated temperatures and in some cases even at room temperature. The reported formation of nitro derivatives from nitrosyl chloride and more chlorinated olefins¹⁷ apparently involves oxidation of the initially formed nitroso compound.

Addition of nitrosyl chloride to higher molecular weight olefins or derivatives and improvements in the procedures have formed the basis of a number of patents for the manufacture of surface-active agents. Generally the nitrosyl chloride addition products of the high-molecular-weight olefins are found to be liquids.

Although addition of nitrosyl chloride to terpenes and the simple olefins has been widely studied³, addition to unsaturated fatty acid derivative has received little attention. It was shown in 1894 by Tilden

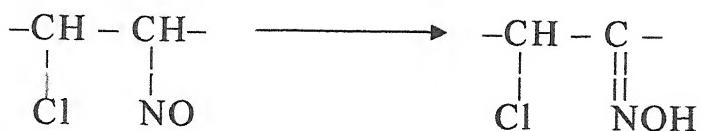
and Forster¹⁸ that nitrosyl chloride adds to oleic and elaidic acids quite readily but their isolation of solid products seems improbable in light of the work reported by Miller *et al.*¹⁹. A patent²⁰ has disclosed the preparation of surfactants from nitrosyl chloride adducts of oleic acid and its esters. Of particular interest is a paper by Kaufmann and Rover²¹ reporting an analytical method for unsaturated fatty materials based on addition of nitrosyl chloride in a manner analogous to that used with iodine monochloride in the standard iodine value determination²². However, only the disappearance of NOCl was measured, and no attempts were made to isolate products. They state that their studies would be directed toward preparative work based on nitrosyl chloride adducts of unsaturated fatty materials. Miller *et al.*¹⁹ later on, reported the successful addition of nitrosyl chloride to methyl oleate on a preparative scale (at 2° using methylene chloride as solvent) and some reactions of the product. The product, methyl 9 (10) - chloro-10 (9) - nitrosostearate, is formed according to equation (eq.5).



[Eq.5]

The dimeric product which is so often observed in the reactions of nitrosyl chloride with olefins is not formed in significant amounts under these conditions. The usually facile rearrangement of the secondary

nitroso compound to the oxime (eq. 6) proceeds slowly on standing and is not easily accelerated.

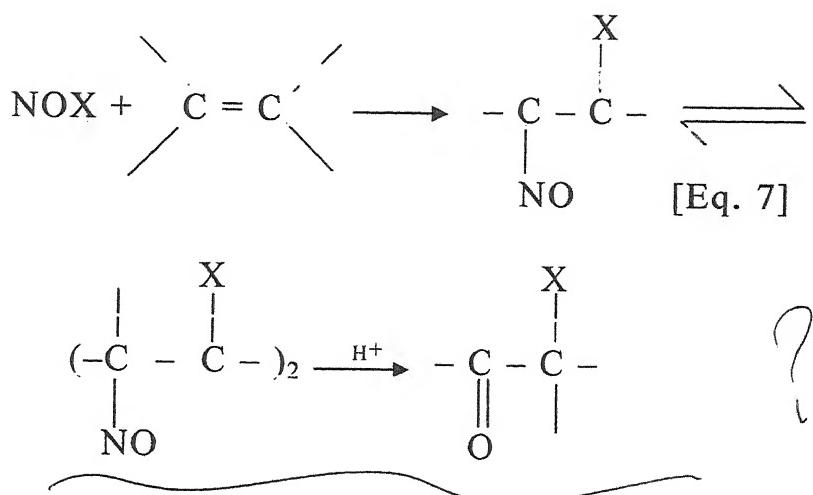


[Eq. 6]

The stereochemical course of the nitrosochlorination of methyl oleate has not been investigated, and the literature concerning the nirosochlorination of other olefins does not provide a satisfactory guide. Undoubtedly, the nitrosochlorination of unsaturated fatty acids and other long-chain aliphatic olefins needs further investigation, since it is potentially useful in the synthesis of fatty nitrogen derivatives. A superficial examination of some of the reactions of methyl chloronitrosostearate has indicated that a variety of products can be prepared¹⁹ and has shown the value of this type of adduct as an intermediate. Not yet demonstrated, but certainly within the realm of reasonable possibility, is the conversion of fatty chlorinitroso derivatives, to the valuable aziridines (eq.4) and nitroaziridines.

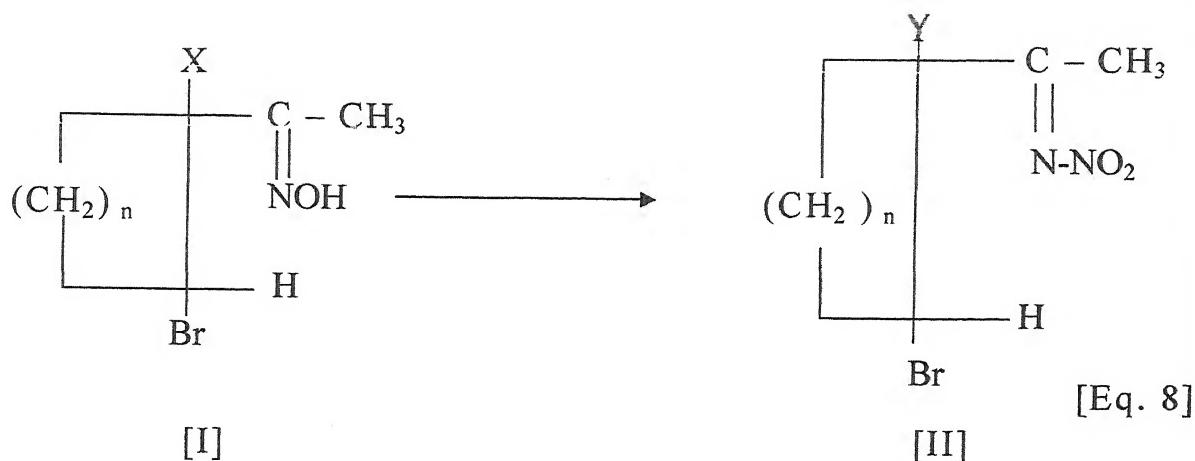
The addition reaction of nitrosyl chloride with olefins, with subsequent hydrolysis of the adducts with levulinic acid made 0.1 N in hydrochloric acid has been shown to be a convenient general method for converting olefins to the corresponding chloroketones²³ (eq.7). Hydrolysis

presumably proceeds *via* oxime tautomer of the monomeric nitroso compound.

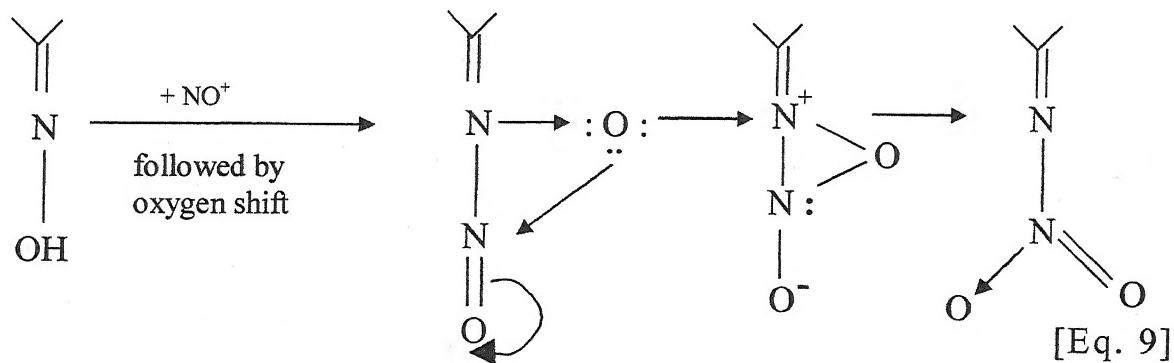


There is all possibility for converting olefinic fatty acids to the corresponding chloro ketones by the application of this reaction.

Normal addition of nitrosyl chloride to an olefin gives a chloronitroso product (monomer or dimer) or an α -chlorooxime. Other products have been called anomalous^{3,4}. The normal (primary) products may be oxidized to secondary products. Shiue *et al.*²⁴ have found a quite different result when compounds of type I are treated with NOCl. Two reactions occur. The oximino group is oxidized to a nitrimine (II) (eq. 8), a result that has been accomplished by nitrous acid oxidation^{25,26} and by nitrosyl fluoride²⁷ but not by NOCl. The oxidizing action of NOCl has been established.



The mechanism of nitrimine formation (new N-N bond formation at the oximino nitrogen by a electrophilic NO^+ group, followed by an oxygen shift) suggest by Freeman^{25,26} and supported by Boswell²⁷ seems adequate to account for these results (eq. 9).



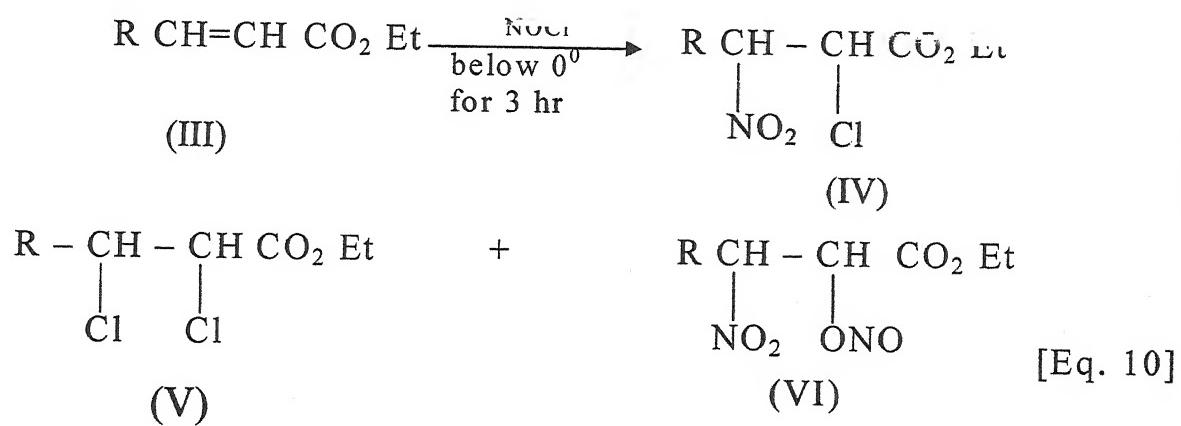
The sharp OH absorption at 3600 cm^{-1} characteristic of oximes²⁸ in dilute CCl_4 solution disappears as the reaction occurs. Compound II show bands at 1580 and 1320 cm^{-1} (NO_2) and medium bands at 1640 cm^{-1} ($\text{C}=\text{N}$), characteristic of nitrimines²⁹. In the following year, 1971, Shieue

*et al.*³⁰ reported additions to two ethylenecycloalkanes and concluded that the chloronitroso addition is the only primary reaction. After that three pathways may be followed: (1) dimerization of the nitroso group (long known), (2) oxidation of the nitroso group to a nitro group, and (3) isomerization to an oxime, followed by oxidation to nitrimine.

Three pathways compete. The second pathway appeared to be the only one in steroid example^{31,32} where dimerization may be inhibited or very slow. Oxidation of an oxime to a nitrimine has been accomplished recently by nitrosyl chloride²⁴. Isomerization of chloronitroso compound to the oxime is catalyzed by hydrogen chloride and goes very rapidly in polar solvents^{30 so} that dimerization and oxidation to a nitro group may not compete successfully in such solvents. The results reported by Shiue *et al.*³⁰ bear out Oglobins suggestion that stable dimer precipitation diminishes opportunity for oxidation to a nitro compound. Their work also suggests that rapid isomerization to oxime lowers nitro formation and increases nitrimine formation.

In the mass spectrometer, only one decomposition pattern is obtained from monomer, dimer and oximino form. So the dimer must dissociate and / or isomerize in the ion chamber. The maximum m/e observed is that of nitrosyl chloride monomer³⁰.

In 1972 Shin *et al.*³³ carried out reaction of α, β - unsaturated carboxylic ester (III) with nitrosyl chloride and observed that the chief products are IV and V as shown in equation (10). The reaction was carried by adding nitrosyl chloride in a stream to a solution of compound III in dry benzene cooled below 0° , with an ice-salt bath. After being stirred for 3 hr at 0° , this reaction mixture was allowed to attain room temperature and to stand for 5 days.



Recently the use of NOCl reaction on double bond has been made for the synthesis of N - nitroaziridine³⁴. The reduction and subsequent base cyclization of nitrimine formed by the action of excess NOCl upon steroidal compound provides a route for the synthesis of N - nitroaziridine which were hitherto known as unstable compounds.

Reaction with hydroxyl groups

In reactions with hydroxyl compounds, nitrosyl chloride functions as the acid chloride of nitrous acid, generally leading to the formation of nitrites. This reaction is identical in effect with the nitrosation of amino, methylene, and similar hydrogen – containing groups. In some cases, oxidation of the hydroxyl group takes place, together with chlorination in some parts of the molecule.

In the gas phase reaction of methanol and nitrosyl chloride an equilibrium is instantly established ³⁵ even at 25°(eq. 11).



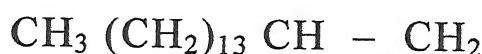
In view of the equilibrium, it is readily understood why alkyl nitrite plus hydrochloric acid formed a convenient means of preparing nitrosyl chloride *in situ* for organic reactions in much of the early work. Using dry pyridine on an acid acceptor in liquid – phase reaction makes high yields of nitrites possible from alcohols such as amyl, n - octyl³⁶, d – 3 nonanol³⁷ and tertiary alcohols such as 3 – methyl 3- pentanol and 3 – ethyl – 3 hexanol³⁸. Under conditions used successfully with the above alcohols, glycerol, ethylene glycol, chloretone, menthol, trimethylene chlorohydrin, and benzyl alcohol do not yield nitrites³⁸. It is of note that d-2 octanol in

reaction with nitrosyl chloride gives an 80% yield of the dextrorotatory nitrite³⁹.

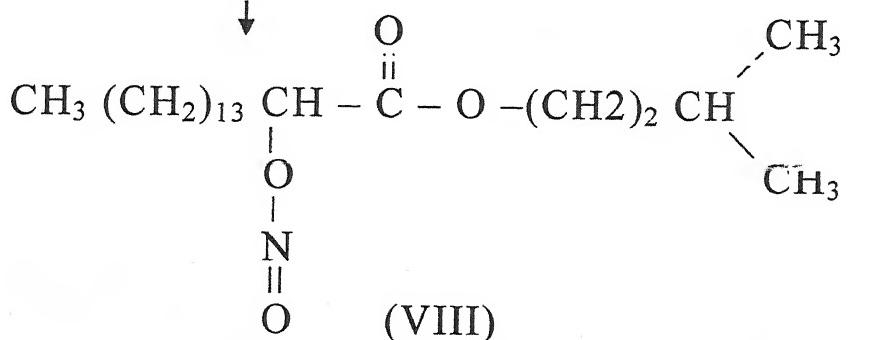
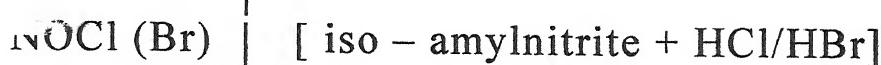
Whereas Hydroxyl groups attached to aromatic nuclei do not readily form nitrites.

Reaction of NOCl and NOBr upon fatty diol

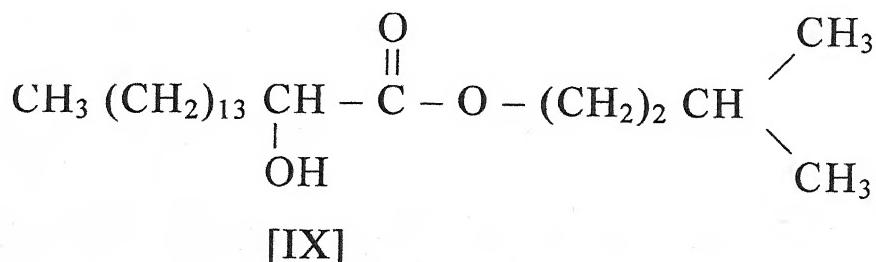
Hasan *et al*⁴⁰. have carried out the reaction of nitrosyl chloride and bromide with 1, 2 hexa de canediol [VII] with a new to ascertain the nature of the reaction product and their structural behaviour.



[VII]



+

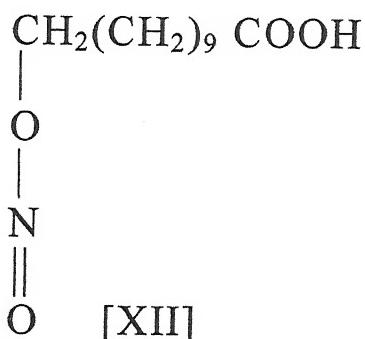
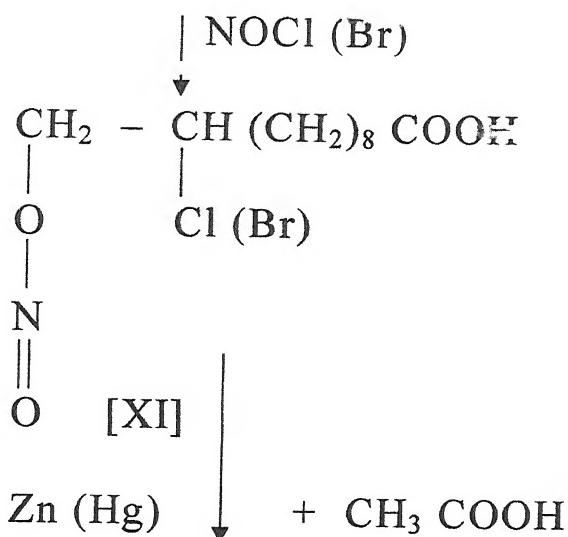
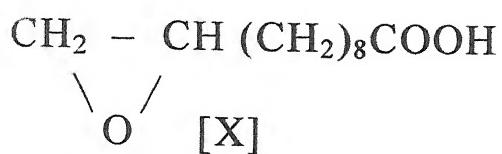


A mixture of two products [VIII] and [IX] was formed together with some unreacted compound.

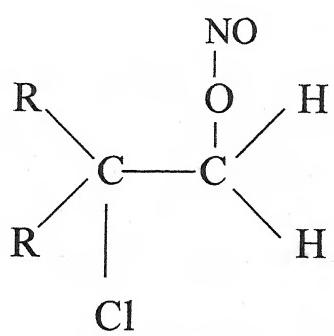
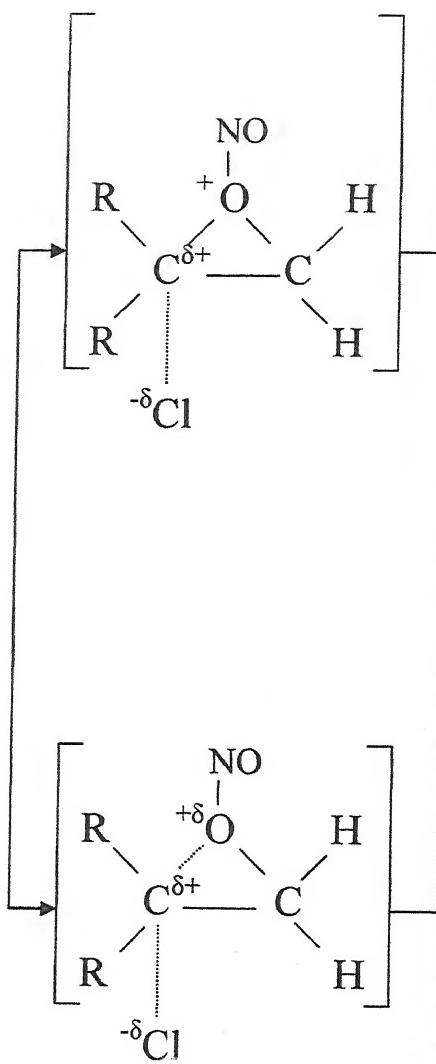
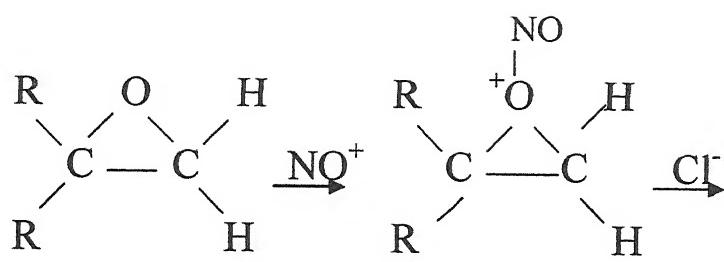
Reaction of NOCl and NOBr upon epoxy fatty acid

Hasan *et al*⁴¹. carried out the rection of nitrosyl chloride and nitrosyl bromide with 10, 11-epoxy undecanoic acid [X]. It is known that the oxirane group highly reactive and undergoes a wide a broad range of electrophiles and nucleophiles. Nitrosyl chloride gas was slowly passed through methylene chloride solution of 10, 11-epoxy undecanoic acid at 0° with continous stirring till whole of the compound has reacted as evidenced by TLC. Anlytical TLC showed the quantitative yeild of product [XI], a yellow oily liquid was obtained after the final work-up. The compound was finally characterized as 10-chloro (bromo) -11 nitrito undecanoic acid. In order to ascertain the respective positions occupied by nitrito and halogroups, the product [XI] was also subjected to reductive removel of halogen atom yielding a product [XII] which give negative Beilstein test.

The NMR spectrum of compound (XII) also confirms the structure of this compound.



A reasonable mechanism for the formation of compound (XI) from compound (X) is as follows:



Where $\text{R} = -(\text{CH}_2)_8\text{COOH}$

Although much careful work has been done on the reactions of fatty acids, the search for purity and homogeneity was severely impeded by the lack of methods for determining the approach to this ideal states. Recent advance in chromatographic methods of separation and spectroscopic methods of structure determination make it possible that all the product of a reaction can now be examined profitably in fatty acids.

The use of spectroscopic methods has contributed much to our recognition of a variety of novel fatty acids and their derivatives and our understanding of their molecular structure and reactions. Out of the four spectroscopic disciplines, the use of NMR and mass in the study of fatty acid identification and characterization of their derivatives have attracted considerable attention in recent years. Therefore it is appropriate here to give a brief account of the application of NMR and mass spectrometry in the chemistry of fatty acids.

Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (NMR) Spectroscopy

From the late 1950's onward, applications of NMR spectroscopy have developed continuously, and they occupy a paramount position as a research tool in organic chemistry. The development of NMR has been characterized by a series of stages which have made it an increasingly powerful research technique and each of these has found an application to lipids. When the NMR spectrum of a simple molecule is determined, its

chemical structure can often be elucidated by first order interpretation of spectral data. The number of different types of protons in the molecule can be determined by integration of peak area and information about proton environment can be obtained from the chemical shift, multiplicity, and coupling constants of distinguishable peaks. In recent years various techniques have been developed to extend the applications of NMR to compounds of complex structure. Among these are : (a) addition of D₂O to suppress the signals of – OH and – NH₂ protons, (b) determination of spectra in various solvents to obtain information from solvent effects,(c) application of decoupling (double resonance or double irradiation) to simplify complex signals and to identify related protons, (d) repeated scanning and averaging by computer to obtain definite spectra in very small samples, (e) the use of shift reagents in structural determination, and (f) ¹³C NMR.

A number of reviews⁴²⁻⁴⁵ on the NMR spectra of fatty acids have appeared in the literature. The first commercially available NMR instruments were mostly of the 60 MHz variety and were primarily for recording proton spectra. It was recognized that 60 MHz NMR spectra of fatty methyl esters, including those of PUFA, contained signals which corresponded to group of protons in various environments along the hydrocarbon chain^{46,47}.

Introduction of 100 MHz instrumentation was the next major advance in NMR, and this was followed within a few years by 220 MHz spectrometers. Each of these refinements resulted in a considerable enhancement in the resolution obtainable with corresponding simplification of spectra. A comparison of 100 MHz ^1H NMR (PMR) spectrum of PUFA with those of 60 MHz spectrum reveals some sharpening of the various signals, especially the τ 7.75 triplet due to protons α to the carboxyl group, and an apparent triplet centered at τ 8.3 associated with the methylene group which is β to the carboxyl group and also β to a double bond. In 220 MHz NMR spectra, resolution of proton signals is enhanced to such a point that each PUFA tends to give a distinctive spectrum⁴⁸⁻⁴⁹. It has been shown⁴⁹ that 220 MHz spectroscopy can be used to determine both the stereochemistry and position of double bonds, and the position of triple bonds, in the majority of fatty acids and esters.

Although NMR is used by lipid chemists, the technique is severely limited in scope and utility because in most long - chain compounds, the majority of chain methylene protons, for all practical purposes, are magnetically equivalent. High resolution NMR spectroscopy, a powerful tool in many fields of organic chemistry, has been used to advantage in the study of some unsaturated fatty acids but has found limited

application in the analysis of fatty acid derivatives due to coincident chemical shift of methylene protons. These protons yield a broad signal of overlapping resonances which preclude their identification and counting as well as the determination of their coupling constant. Since majority of the chain methylene protons are magnetically indistinguishable, it is impossible to confirm spectrally the presence or absence of chain substituents or chain branching. Recently, some interpretive problems have been overcome by determining the spectra in the presence of chemical shift reagents (CSR) which expand the NMR spectra of lipid derivatives, thus providing considerably more structural information than it has hitherto been possible to obtain. The best CSR developed so far are rare earth complexes of europium^{50,51} or praseodymium⁵². Typical CSR complexes combine Eu (III) or Pr (III) with the anionic ligands : 2, 2, 6, 6 – tetramethyl -3, 5-heptanedione or 1, 1, 1, 2, 2, 3, 3-heptafluoro-7,7-dimethyl-4,6-octanedione; abbreviated designations for these complexes are Eu (thd)₃, Pr (thd)₃, Eu (fod)₃, and Pr (fod)₃. CSR can markedly expand NMR spectra of compounds containing functional groups with lone pairs of electrons, if the lone pair can co-ordinate with the rare earth metal. The spectra are expanded because the chemical environment of protons near the co-ordination site is different from the environment of distant protons in the molecule. The signals of protons near the co-ordination site are therefore displaced. This

displacement is directly related to the distance between the protons in question and the complexed metal atom; the smaller the distance, the greater the shift. Complexes containing Eu and Pr complement each other since, relative to tetramethylsilane (TMS), the Eu complexes shift proton signals downfield from their original position whereas Pr complexes shift them upfield.

If a molecule contains a functional group having sufficient Lewis basicity it can form a complex with CSR. The bonding in CSR complexes is considered to be mainly, if not exclusively, dipolar⁵² and it has been reported to decrease in strength as the Lewis basicity of the functional group decreases: amines > alcohols ≥ Ketone ≥ aldehydes ≥ ethers > esters > nitriles; halide, indoles, and double bonds are inactive⁵¹. CSR induce changes in the NMR chemical shift of proton signals because the magnetic environment of protons in a complexed molecule differs from the magnetic environment of protons in an uncomplexed molecule. CSR complexation can often provide additional spectral data for protons upto eight carbons away from a CSR-active functional group. Sometimes, however, due to overlapping NMR signals, useful information can only be obtained for protons with in five carbons of a Eu (fod)₃ co-ordination site⁵³.

CSR reagents can substantially increase the amount of structural information obtainable from NMR studies of saturated and unsaturated lipid derivatives. It is theoretically possible to obtain more information from CSR studies of unsaturated lipid derivatives by introducing additional CSR-active functional groups into these molecules through derivatisation of their double bonds. However, additional CSR coordination site complicate spectral interpretation, because they increase the number of signals that overlap. The two model compounds viz, methyl ricinoleate and methyl 12-hydroxystearate were investigated⁵⁴ to test the feasibility of attempting other CSR analyses of polyfunctional molecules of unknown structure. The individual proton signals have been observed and assigned for all the protons in methyl ricinoleate; except those on carbons 5, 6, and 7. Information obtained for methyl 12-hydroxytearate, is less apecific.Signals are obtained for all protons in methyl 12-hydroxystearate although in some cases several proton signals overlap.

In 1972 wineburg and swern⁵⁴ reported have revealed that a signal spectrum CSR analysis of a polyfunctional molecule is not possible. Unambiguous assignment of overlapping protons signals can be accomplished only through the use of several complementary interpretive

techniques including an incremental addition study, the construction of proton plots and the calculation of induced shift ratios.

Carbon-13 Nuclear Magnetic Resonance (^{13}C NMR) Spectroscopy

In ^1H NMR (PMR) spectroscopy, the investigator examines signals which are associated with hydrogen atoms and give information about the environment of those hydrogens. In a variation of NMR spectroscopy developed more recently "carbon-13 nuclear magnetic resonance (^{13}C NMR)" peaks due to carbon atoms are recorded instead. This relatively new form of NMR is already being applied to fatty acids, and promises to be a powerful tool⁵⁵⁻⁵⁷.

The multiplicity of ^{13}C NMR signals is determined primarily by the number of protons attached to the carbon under consideration; those with no protons attached, e.g. in carbonyl groups, appear as singlets. In many ^{13}C NMR spectra, a hopeless profusion of overlapping signals is displayed without application of a technique called proton decoupling; the procedure collapses all multiplets to singlets so that the spectrum is greatly simplified^{58, 59}.

Tulloch *et al.*⁶⁰ have assigned chemical shifts to all the separate signals in the ^{13}C NMR spectra of methyl stearate, oleate, and petroselinate by means of the second and third atom isotope effects in the

spectra of specifically deuterated esters. All the isomeric oxostearates and most of the hydroxy- and acetoxyestearates can be distinguished and identified by their ^{13}C spectra. Bus *et al.*^{61,62} have studied ^{13}C NMR of methyl, methylene, and carbonyl carbon atoms of methyl alkenoates and alkynoates, and double and triple bond carbon atoms of unsaturated fatty acid methyl esters. Gunstone *et al.*^{63,64} have made ^{13}C NMR studies of acetylenic and olefinic fatty acids and esters. Recently, Smith, Jr.⁶⁵ has studied the ^1H -decoupled spectrum of a conjugated acetylenic PUFA, methyl isanolate. Most recently the carbon-13 pulse Fourier transform NMR technique for measurement of intact plant tissue has been used by Chen *et al.*⁶⁶ for the characterization and estimation of fatty acid composition in seeds of *Leucas cephalotus*, *Stocksia brahuica*, and *Avena Fatua*.

Mass Spectrometry (MS)

In recent years mass spectrometry has been widely accepted as one of the most valuable and powerful techniques available to the organic chemist for the structure determination of an ever-increasing variety of natural products. Within these areas, fatty acid esters occupied a unique position in that they represent one of the earliest and most comprehensively studied classes of natural products to be investigated. The use of mass spectrometry for determining the structure of fatty acids has been reviewed by McCloskey⁶⁷, Zeeman and Scharmann⁶⁸ and Klein⁶⁹.

The successful mass spectral analysis of glycerides and their derivatives was coincident with the introduction of direct insertion techniques leading to the analysis of triglyceride mixture^{70,71}. Combined gas chromatography and mass spectrometry (GC-MS) , associated with refinements in the design of various types of molecular spectra^{72,73} has been applied to the analysis of mixture of fatty acid esters^{74,75} . More recent studies of the mass spectra of highly polar lipids such as glycerophospholipids, sphingophospholipids and glycolipids have used a wide range of techniques including ‘Soft’ ionization methods to limit the fragmentation of the molecular, or quasi-molecular ion.

Apart from low resolution mass spectrometry (LRMS \approx 1000) which is the sine qua non of the analytical approach, more specialized techniques include (i) high resolution mass spectrometry (HRMS:RP \approx 10000) for the accurate measurement of ionic mass-to charge ratio, (ii) specific labelling with stable isotopes, or with functional groups designed to direct fragmentation, (iii) reduction of the electron beam energy in order to limit fragmentation, (iv) metastable ion techniques for the elucidation of specific pathways, and (v) the measurements of ionic appearance potentials yielding thermochemical data.

"Field desorption MS" technique developed by Beckey *et.al*⁷⁰ and Robertson and Co-worker⁷⁷ has been used to obtain a greatly different mass spectrum consisting almost entirely of the molecular ion peak.

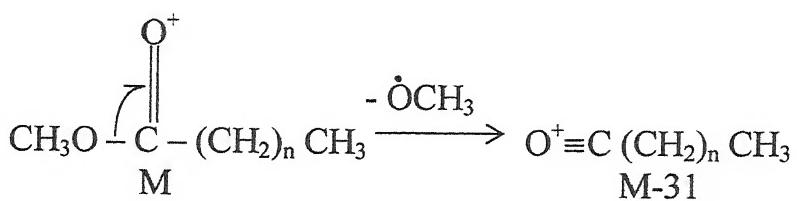
Mass Spectra of Fatty Acid Esters

Most of the mass spectrometric structure work on fatty acids has been performed on the corresponding (usually methyl) esters. Most fragmentation reaction can be classified as either simple cleavage or rearrangements.

The molecular ion (M^+) and M-31

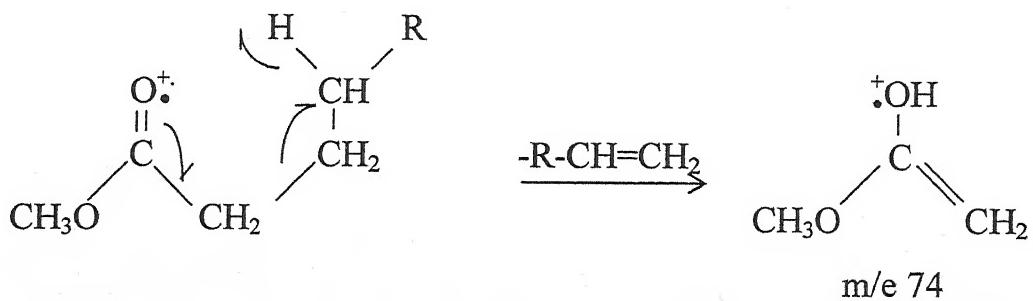
The relative abundance of M^+ increases from methyl pentanoate onwards and its presence can be verified by the acylium ion, M-31,

formed by simple α -cleavage. This peak is of excellent diagnostic value of esters since it is characteristic of methyl group in methyl esters.



Mass 74

Gamma hydrogen migration to a double bond followed by beta cleavage yields the ion 74 (McLafferty Rearrangement)⁷⁸ which is the base peak.

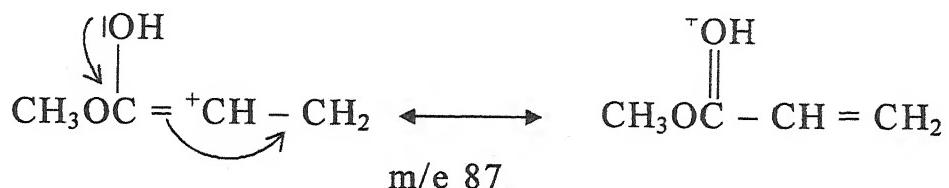


Mass 74 will shift to correspondingly higher masses if C(2) is substituted. Mass 75 is usually observed to be more abundant than required by the isotope peak of m/e 74. Most of the observed m/e 75 peak

is due to protonated form of m/e 74. The origin of second transferred hydrogen is not known but is apparently abstracted randomly from the chain.

Oxygen – containing ions $[(\text{CH}_2)_n \text{COOCH}_3]^+$

These ions are arithmetically found at m/e $(59 + 14n)$, i.e., m/e 87, 101, 115, 129, 143, 157 etc. The lowest potential member, m/e 73, is essentially absent, probably owing to the unfavourable location of a positive charge adjacent to a positively polarised carbonyl group. The most abundant member, m/e 87, derives its stability from the enol form.

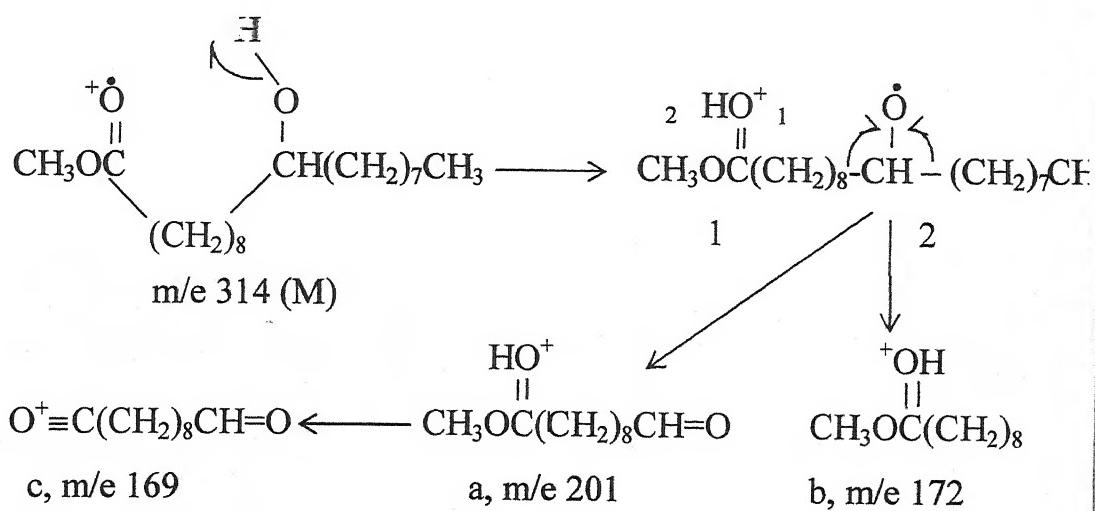


Hydrocarbon ions

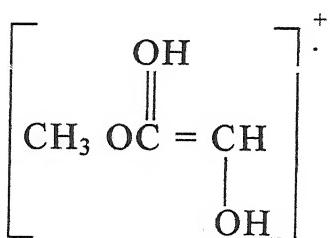
Both simple cleavage and rearrangement processes contribute to the formation of hydrocarbon ions, the most prominent of which (m/e 69, 83, 97 etc.) are from saturated series $\text{C}_n\text{H}_{2n+1}$. The presence of hydrocarbon ions in the mass spectrum in general serves no structural purpose, but may occasionally be helpful in establishing a reference point for counting the spectrum.

Hydroxy fatty esters

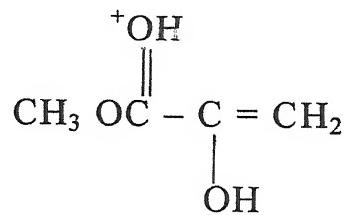
In the mass spectra of hydroxyl esters it has been observed that the molecular ion peak is usually small or absent. Taking an example of DL-10-hydroxyoctadecanoate⁷⁹ the peaks at m/e M-32 (loss of methanol) and peaks at m/e 264, 222 and 180 characteristic for methyl oleate indicate that some dehydration has occurred. The location of the hydroxyl group is indicated by the base peak at m/e 201, the ion arising through α -cleavage on the far side of the hydroxyl group. Further loss of methanol from this ion gives the 'ketene' - type ion of m/e 169. Another characteristic feature is the ion of m/e 172 that arises from α -cleavage in the near side of the hydroxyl group with shift of one hydrogen atom from the fragment lost.



Variation of the position of a functional group in the chain can give rise to considerable change in ion abundances, particularly when the function is moved near either extreme end. For example, the mass spectra of methyl esters containing a hydroxyl group in position 3 are so dominated by m/e 103 (due to the α - cleavage on the far side of the hydroxyl group) that M and upper mass range fragment ions are virtually absent^{78,80}. If the hydroxyl group is located on the alpha carbon atom, cleavage between C (1) and C (2) is facilitated, leading to loss of the carbomethoxy group. Ions of m/e 90 and 103 correspond, respectively, to the rearranged ion of m/e 74 and the ion of m/e 87 found saturated methyl esters, the hydroxyl group being retained in the ion.



m/e 90



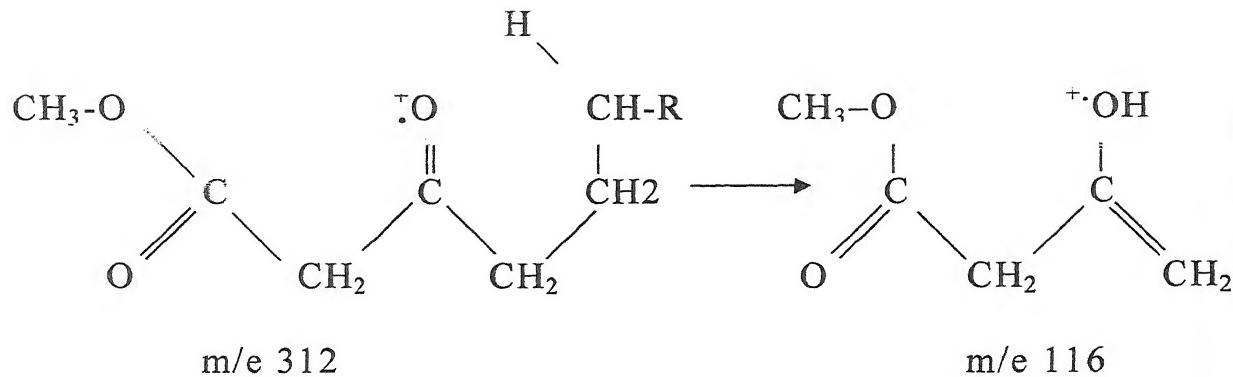
m/e 103

If the hydroxyl is silylated, cleavages on either side of the substituted carbon atom result in prominent ions. For TMS ethers of diols in the series $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_n-\text{CH}(\text{OTMS})-\text{CH}(\text{OTMS})-(\text{CH}_2)_m-\text{CO}_2\text{CH}_3$, cleavage takes place between the two OTMS groups producing two fragments. $[\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_n-\text{CH}(\text{OTMS})]^+$ and $[-\text{CH}(\text{OTMS})-$

$(\text{CH}_2)_m\text{CO}_2\text{CH}_3]^+$ with the positive charge retained almost equally on both fragments. Silylation of hydroxyl groups in methyl esters of unsaturated hydroxy acids provides compounds that give mass spectra which can be readily interpreted, whereas spectra of underivatized esters are extremely difficult to evaluate. The relationship of the double bond (s) to the tri-methylsiloxy (TMS) group results in specific mass spectral patterns.

Keto Fatty esters

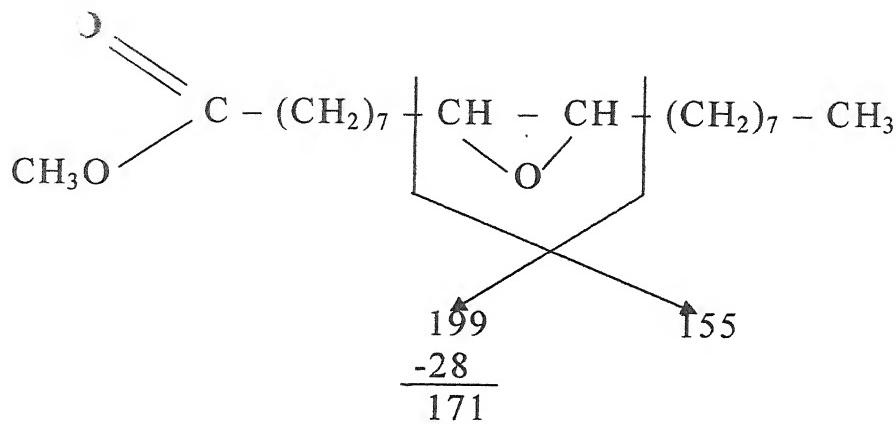
The position of a keto oxygen atom generally can be deduced easily from the mass spectrum⁷⁹ where both alpha and beta cleavages with rearrangement occur. Deviations from the pattern occur when the oxo group is located near the methoxy- carbonyl group or near the terminal carbon atom of the hydro- carbon chain. In the 2 - oxo compound the tendency to cleavage between the vicinal oxo groups is so strong that the acylium ion of m/e M - 59 dominates the spectrum. In case of methyl 3-oxooctadecanoate the base peak at m/e 116 is due to ions formed by 4, 5 - cleavage (β to the 3 - oxo group) with migration of one hydrogen atom as shown below.



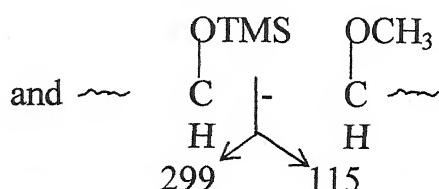
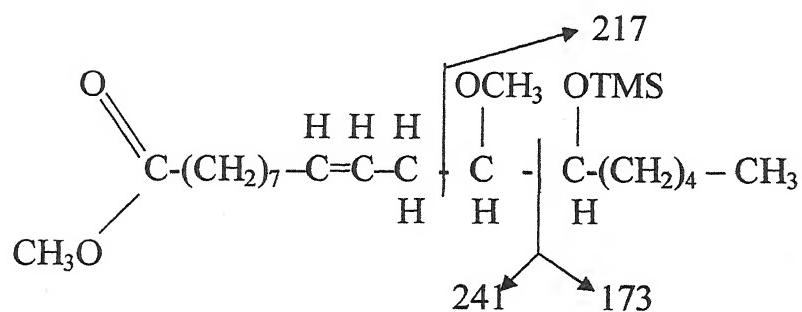
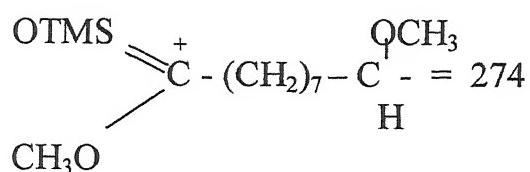
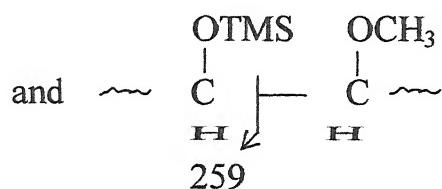
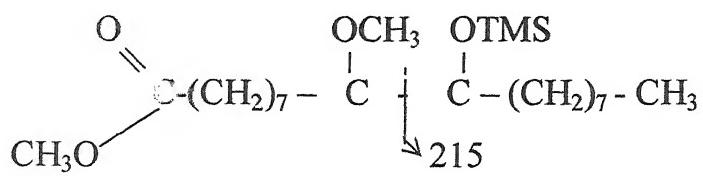
When the oxo group is located near end the of the hydrocarbon chain, the same cleavage pattern is observed except that for positions (-2) and (-1) ions formed by β – cleavage on the hydrocarbon side of the oxo group and rearrangement are absent since no hydrogen atoms at γ – position with respect to the oxo group are available.

Epoxy fatty esters

Saturated epoxy give mass spectra, the interpretation of which is so straightforward that epoxidation and MS form an established procedure to locate double bonds^{81,82}. For example, the spectrum of methyl 9, 10 – epoxystearate⁷⁹ has a base peak of m/e 155 arising from cleavage alpha to the epoxide ring. Cleavage on the other side of the functional group produces a much smaller but significant peak at m/e 199. In contrast, addition of a double bond into the molecule changes the spectrum so radically that assigning the location of the epoxide ring is almost impossible.



In 1972 Sen - Gupta⁸³ converted the methyl esters of the epoxy acids into the cyclopentanone - ketals in the presence of traces of BF_3 and studied their mass spectra to confirm the structure of epoxy acids. Later on, Kleiman and Spencer⁸⁴ have studied the mass spectra of epoxy esters by first converting the epoxide to a methoxy-hydroxy group (by treatment with BF_3/MeOH) and then silylating. In esters without a double bond one methylene unit from the oxygenated site, two peaks define the location of the oxygenated group. Both peaks arise from cleavage between the carbon atoms containing the methyloxyl and the siloxyl groups. The significant ions contain the siloxyl groups and not the methoxyl groups.. In esters that have a methylene group separating a double bond from the methoxy- trimethylsiloxy groups, they also have the ions described above plus an ion from α - cleavage on the side of the methoxy-trimethylsilyloxy substituent closest to the double bond.



Unsaturated fatty acid esters

The location of double bonds in fatty acids by mass spectrometry has been approached in many ways which have been summarized in reviews^{67-69,85}. Methyl esters of all positional and geometrical isomers of

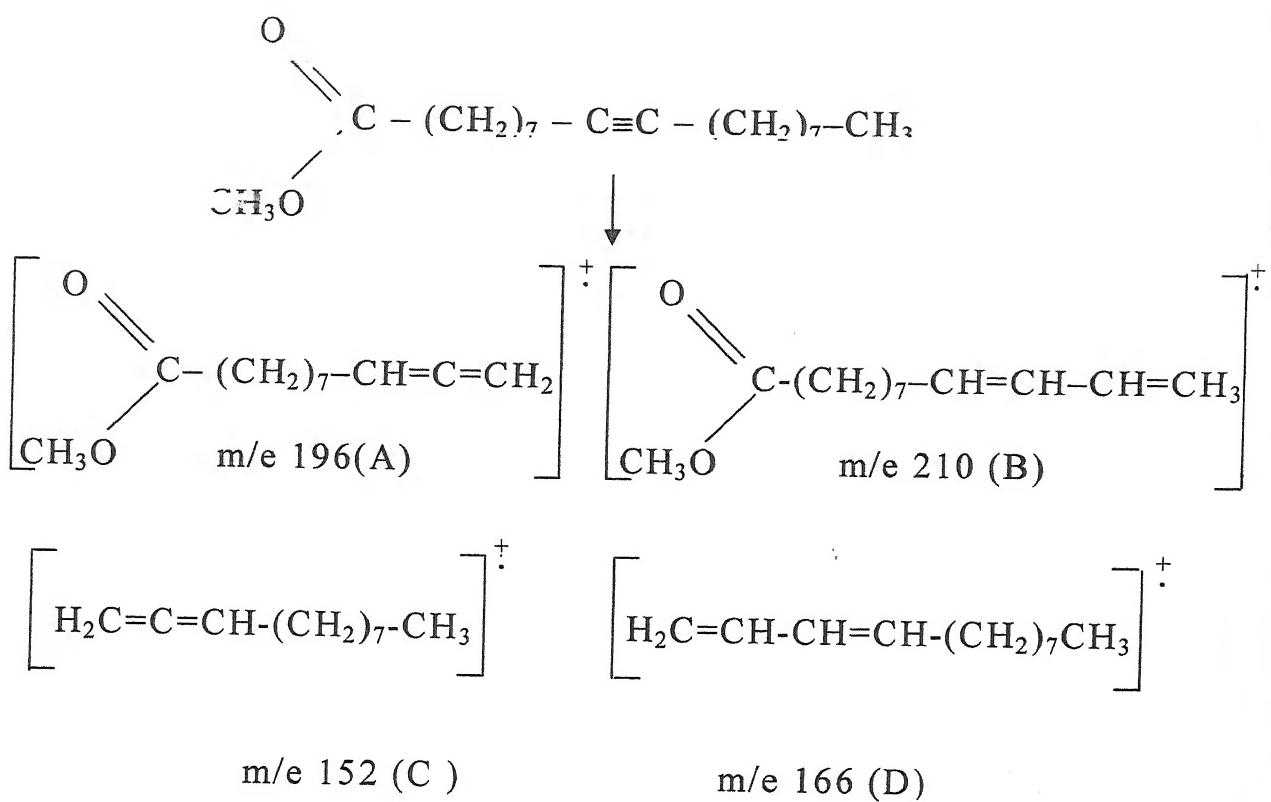
oleic acid (except the α,β - unsaturated) give mass spectra that are practically, identical to that of methyl oleate⁸⁶. The spectra of monounsaturated esters are further indistinguishable from cyclopropane esters of the same number of carbon atoms. The problem of double bond location turns on the choice of a suitable derivative yielding distinct and limited fragmentation without migration, often directed by a charge - stabilizing group, such as TMS or a resonance - stabilized ring. Among these methods the procedure of methoxymercuration - demercuration has been reported⁸⁷ to be simple, reliable an rapid. Mass spectra of the methoxylated esters are characterized by intense peaks due to cleavage adjacent to methoxy functions which allow the position of the original double bond in the chain to be ascertained. Fragments of the type R - $^+CH - OCH_3$, R - CH = OCH₃ are expected to be particularly prominent in the mass spectra of such methoxy esters. A modification of the method, which includes the mass spectrometry of methoxybromo/methoxyiodo derivatives of long-chain unsaturated esters prepared from methoxymercuric acetate adducts, has also been reported⁸⁸.

In 1974 Anderson and coworkers^{89,90} have reported a more satisfactory solution to the problem of determining double bond position. These authors have demonstrated that more useful results are obtained with amides and particularly pyrrolidides from the mass spectra of which

double bond position can be deduced directly. The spectra of the octadecenylpyrrolidides contain clusters of peaks from the polar part of the molecule. If an interval of 12 atomic mass units, instead of the regular 14, is observed between the most intense peak of each cluster of fragments containing n and n-1 carbon atoms in the acid moiety then a double bond occurs between carbon atoms n and n+1 in the molecule. The rule is valid for the double bonds occurring at positions C-5 to C-15 in an 18 – carbon chain and has been applied to acids having 10-24 carbon atoms. Anderson *et al.*⁹¹ have also applied the derivatization for mass spectrometric determination of double bond position in polyunsaturated fatty acids.(PUFA) Plattner *et al.*⁹² have developed a rapid micro-procedure to locate double bonds in polyenoic fatty esters containing from one to four double bonds through partial oxymercuration.

Acetylenic fatty acid methyl esters

In 1976 Kleiman *et al.*⁹³ analyzed an almost complete series of methyl octadecynoate (all but the 3, 4 and 16, 17 isomers) by mass spectrometry. The basic mass spectral pattern in one of cleavage with McLafferty rearrangement either of the acetylenic band or of the isomeric allenes found by rearrangement. For example, the mass spectrum of methyl octadec – 9 – ynoate (methyl stearolate) showed the following four characteristic fragment ions:



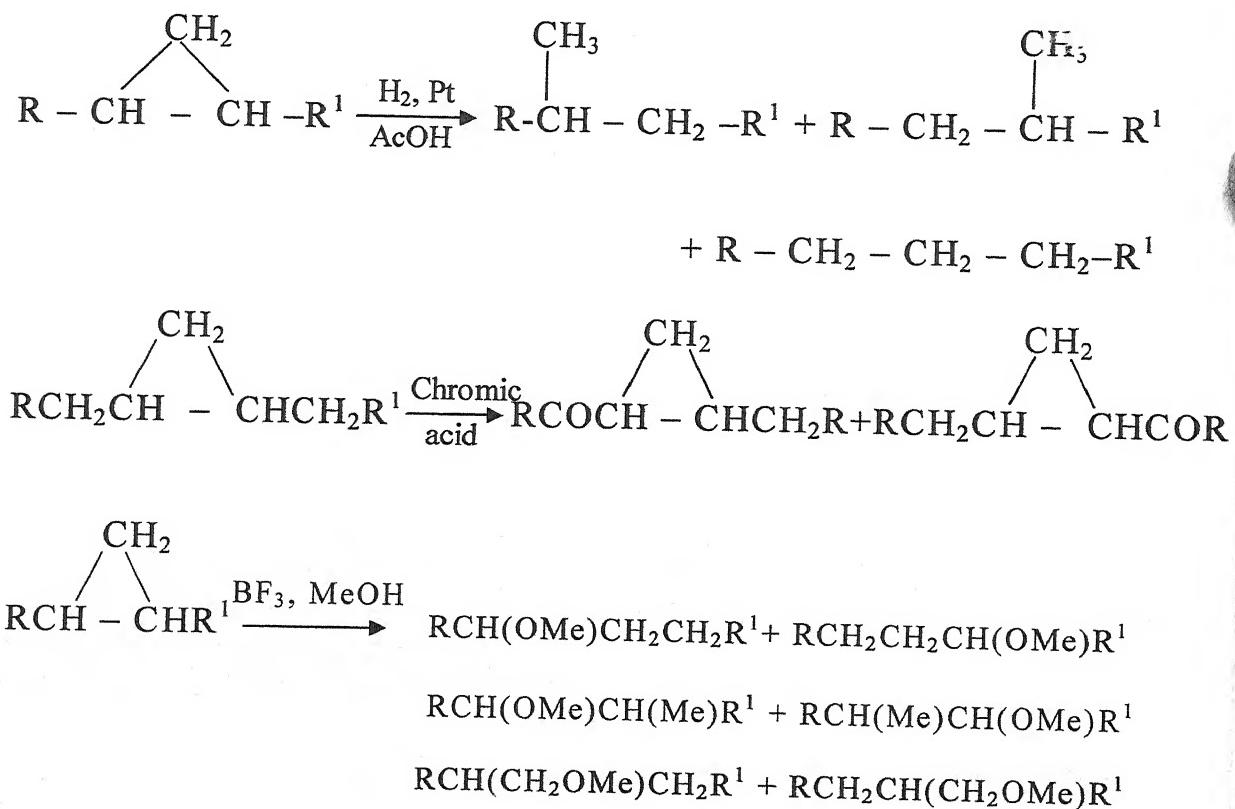
Ions with 32 mass units (CH_3OH) less than ions A and B were also present. Ions containing the terminal part of the molecule (C and D) are found most abundant when the triple bond is close to this part of the molecule. Fragment ions A and A - 32 are the most intense of the characteristic ions when the acetylenic bond is near the ester function.

Oxymercuration of acetylenic esters produce both isomeric oxoesters. Addition of excess of NaBH_4 resulted in a mixture of hydroxyl esters. The major ions were determined for the silylated hydroxyl esters formed from each member of the series. Each derivatized acetylenic ester produces upto four major and two minor characteristic peaks.

Cyclopropane and Cyclopropene fatty acid esters

Cyclopropane fatty acids give mass spectra that are practically indistinguishable from those of the corresponding unsaturated isomers.

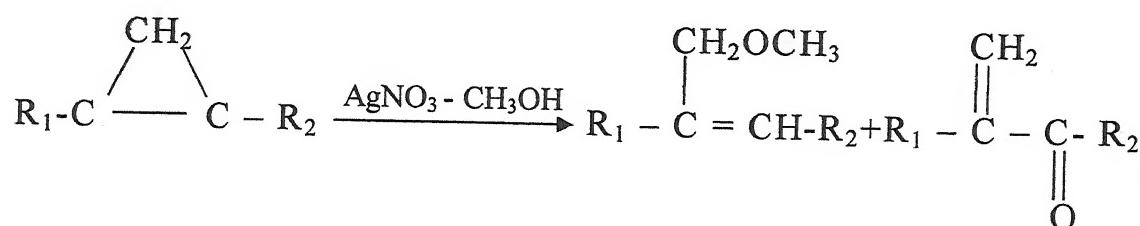
More usefully, the cyclopropane system may be fixed by some chemical reactions leading to a product, or more usually a mixture of products, which are identified by mass spectrometry. These reactions include hydrogenolysis⁹⁴, oxidation⁹⁵ and reaction with boron trifluoride⁹⁶.



In 1977, Gensler and Marshall⁹⁷ have reported the structure determination of cyclopropane – substituted acids by mass spectrometry. Chromium oxidation of cyclopropane fatty esters converts the alkyl methylene group next to the three membered ring to an oxo group.

Cyclopropene esters are apparently too labile to be subjected directly to mass spectrometry, but the position of ring can be located by this technique if the compound is oxidized to a β – diketone⁹⁸ or reacted with methanethiol to form a product with the sulphur atom attached to either of the ring carbons⁹⁹.

Eisele *et al*¹⁰⁰ have studied the mass spectral fragmentation pattern of the silver nitrate – methanol treated derivatives of a number of cyclopropenoid compounds.



All the cyclopropene silver nitrate derivatives show a base peak of m/e 85, probable structure C_6H_{13} or $\text{C}_5\text{H}_9\text{O}^+$. Ions at m/e 41, 43, 55, 71, 81, and 95 are intense in all spectra. Also, each methoxy derivative shows an ion equivalent to the loss of R_1 from the parent ion. A characteristic parent minus 32 mass, which would indicate the probable loss of methanol from the parent ion, is present in all spectra.

Other large ring cyclic fatty acids such as those with cyclopentene¹⁰¹, cyclohexene¹⁰² or furanoid¹⁰³ give quite distinct spectra from which the structures are readily deduced.

B. PRESENT WORK

Although addition of nitrosyl chloride to olefinic substrates has been studied^{3, 4, 31,32,34}. Nitrosochlorination of unsaturated fatty acids has received only limited study. The reported conversion of nitrosochloro derivatives to the valuable aziridines³⁴ has in recent years highlighted the application of this reaction to fatty acid derivatives to the valuable aziridines³⁴ to fatty acid chemistry. The preparation of a variety of new fatty acid derivatives from internal, terminal and $\alpha,\beta-$ unsaturated acids are valuable contributions by S.M. Osman *et al.*¹⁰⁴⁻¹¹⁰. As a part of our continuing study of the derivatization of aliphatic compounds related to fats, the nitrosochlorination of aliphatic compounds related to fats, the nitrosochlorination of olefinic fatty acids was taken up for the present study.

Nitrosochlorination of methyl oleate (VII)

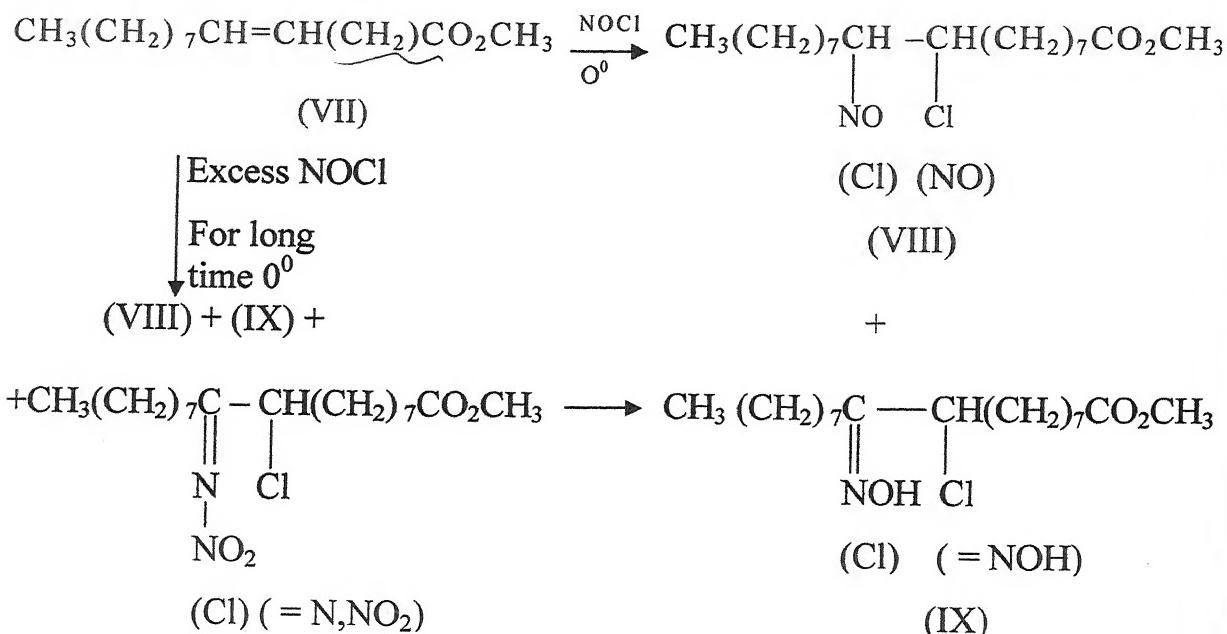
The nitrosochlorination of oleic acid was first carried out by Tilden *et al.* in 1894¹⁸. Re-examination by Miller *et al.*¹⁹ has demonstrated that the addition of nitrosyl chloride to methyl oleate is essentially quantitative, when the reaction is conducted at 2° and the solvent is methylene chloride. However, no attempts were made to isolate

and characterize the individual product of the reaction. Further, reports of the formation of anomalous products during the recent studies of NOCl reaction upon olefinic compounds led the author to carry out the present investigation. The various products formed during the reaction of mNOCl upon methyl oleate (Scheme 1) under varying conditions were isolated and characterized with the acid of chromatographic and spectroscopic techniques.

Methyl oleate (VII) on treatment with approximately stoichiometric quantities of nitrosyl chloride in situ (iso-amyl nitrite + HCl) at 0° in methylene chloride solution for 3-4 hr gave essentially quantitative yield of (VIII) an azure oil, in admixture with a little of its isomeric oximino form (IX).

After usual work-up of the reaction mixture, there was obtained

Scheme 1



a blue liquid. Reation products were separated into two fractions (1 and 2) by column chromatography over silica gel. A major fraction 1, eluted first, as a blue coloured liquid contained chiefly a nitrosyl chloride adduct (VIII) in admixture with a little oximino form (IX). With respect to the positions of the nitroso and the chlorine, product (VIII) in admixture with a little oximino form (IX). With respect to the positions of the nitroso and the chlorine, product (VIII) is probably a mixutre of isomers [methyl9(10)-chlorc-10(9)- nitrosostearate, (VIII)]. That both isomers were indeed formed was evident from the TLC of the reaction product which showed two closely associated spots (R_f 0.8 and 0.85). A minor fraction 2, of lower R_f (0.24), was characterised as the oximino form (IX) of compound (VIII). This fraction was also believed to be an isomeric mixture of oximes [methyl 9 (10)-chloro-10(9)-oximinostearate, (IX)].

The characterization of different fractions was made on the basis of microanalysis, IR and NMR.

Characterization of Fraction 1

The product was tested qualitatively for the presence of halogen by the Beilstein test. It gave satisfactory microchemical analysis for $C_{19}H_{36}NO_3Cl$ (Compound (VIII/IX)). The IR spectrum (Fig 1, Sheet I) of Fraction 1 showed, besides the bands usually found in long-chain fatty esters, absorption at 1570 ($N=O$), 1110 (C-N), and 710 (C-Cl) cm^{-1} indicative of the nitrosochloride functions. The presence of weak bands at 1640 (C=N), and 3450 (OH) cm^{-1} indicated the presence of ketoxime, a rearranged product of (VIII) in minor amount. The NMR spectrum (Fig. 2, Sheet II) was decisive in arriving at a more firm conclusion regarding the composition of fraction 1 as an isomeric mixture of methyl 9 (10)-chloro-10 (9)-nitostearate (VIII) and methyl 9 (10)-chloro-10(9)-oximinosterate (IX), former being in a major amount. NMR spectrum displayed a signal at τ 2.52 (D_2O exchangeable) ascribed to the oximino group proton (=N-OH), an unresolved multiplet at τ 6.12 for methine proton adjacent to the chlorine atom and an unresolved multiplet centred at τ 6.65 assigned to the methine proton adjacent to the nitoso group.

oximino function on VIII

Sheet - I

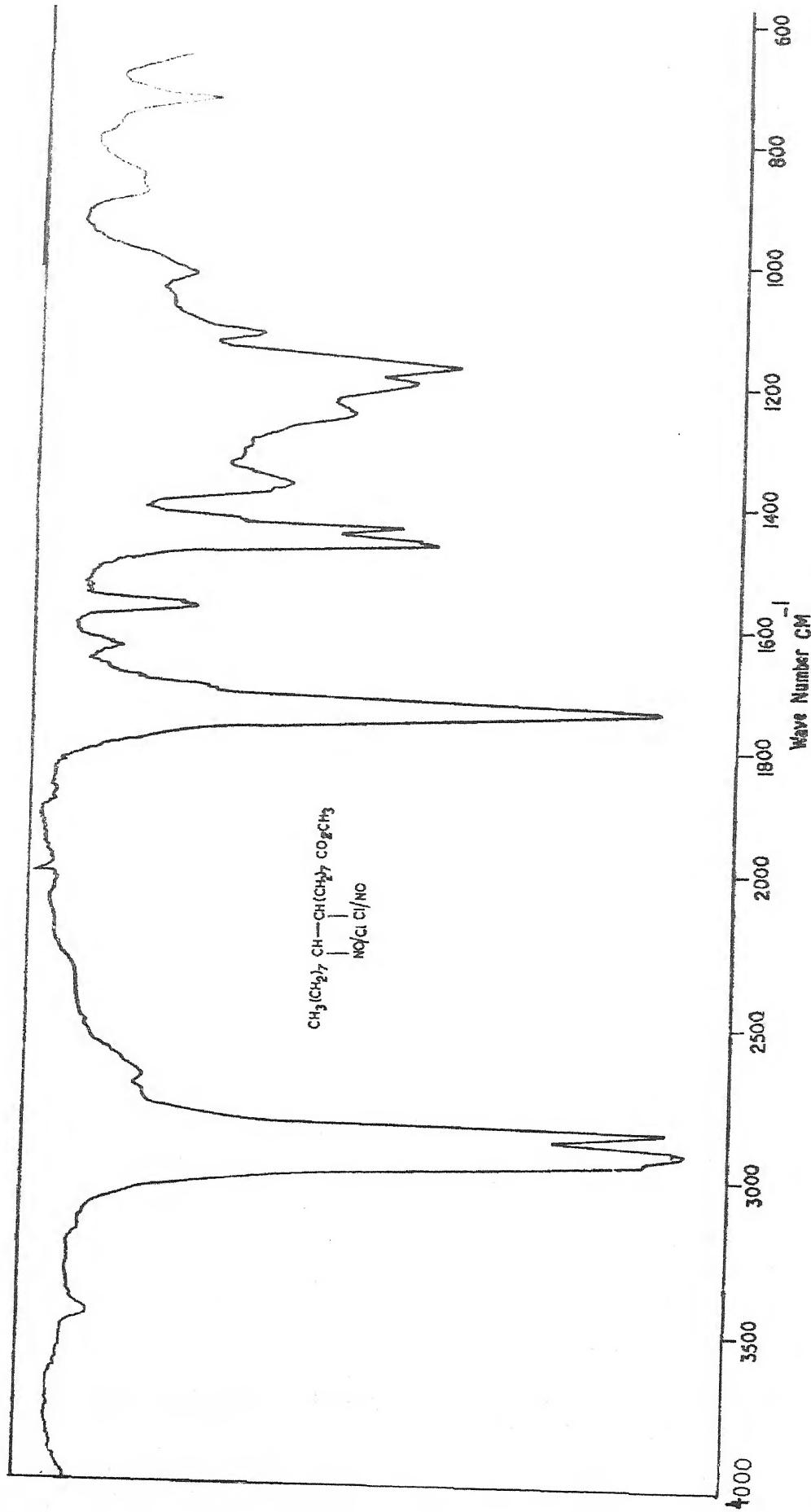


Fig 1. IR spectrum of methyl 9(10) – chloro -10(9)- nitrosoetadecanoate (VIII)

A signal at τ 8.38 was also observed due to methylene protons α to the -CHCl- [-CHCl-CH₂-]. Other proton signals usually present in fatty acid ester at τ

O
||
6.34 (s, 3H, -C-OCH₃), 7.76 (2H, protons α to ester group), 8.65 (br s, chain methylene protons), and 9.12 (distorted, τ 3H, terminal methyl protons) were also observed.

Characterization of Fraction 2

Microanalysis of fraction 2 (compound IX) supported the formula C₁₉H₃₆NO₃Cl (positive Beilstein test). IR spectrum of the compound (IX) displayed bands at 3450 (OH), and 1640 (C=N) cm⁻¹ indicative of the oximino group. NMR spectrum (Fig.3, Sheet III) showed an apparent multiplet centered at τ 2.65 for one proton which is D₂O exchangeable and assigned to the hydroxyl proton of oximino group (=N-OH). Another signal at τ 6.1 is attributed to the methine proton adjacent to the Cl atom (-CHCl-). Other signals characteristic for long-chain fatty acid ester were also exhibited the ester methyl protons (-C(=O)-OCH₃) gave rise to a singlet at τ 6.35 protons α to the ester carbonyl gave rise to a triplet at τ 7.76, the methylene protons appeared as a large broad signal centered at τ 8.65. A distorted triplet appeared at τ 9.12 for the terminal methyl group. Both IR and NMR sustained the assigned structure (IX).

Presence of hydrogen on the carbon carrying nitrosyl group permits rearrangement to the oxime³. For most of the

Sheet-II

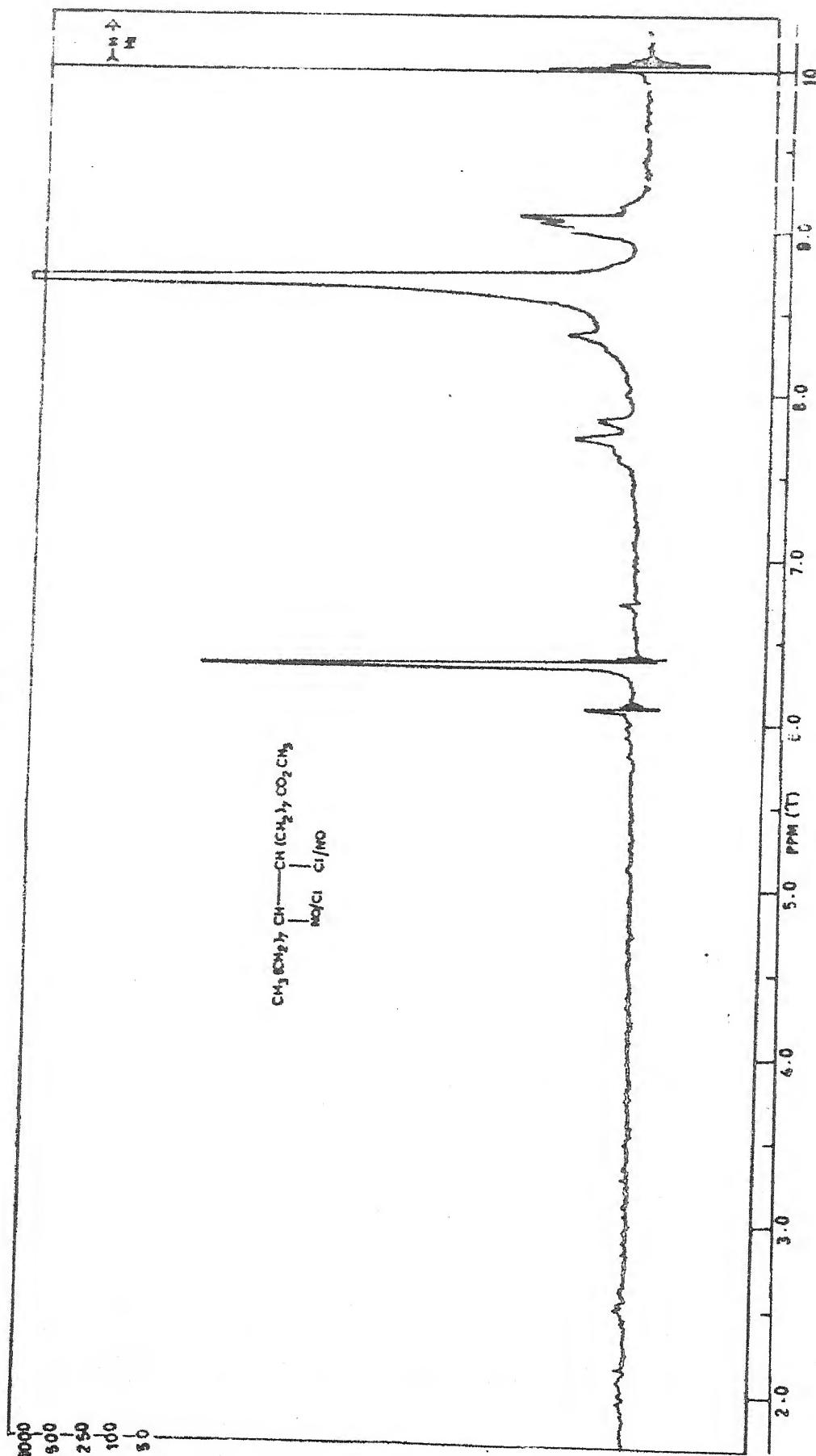


Fig. 2. - NMR spectrum of compound (VIII)

Sheet-III

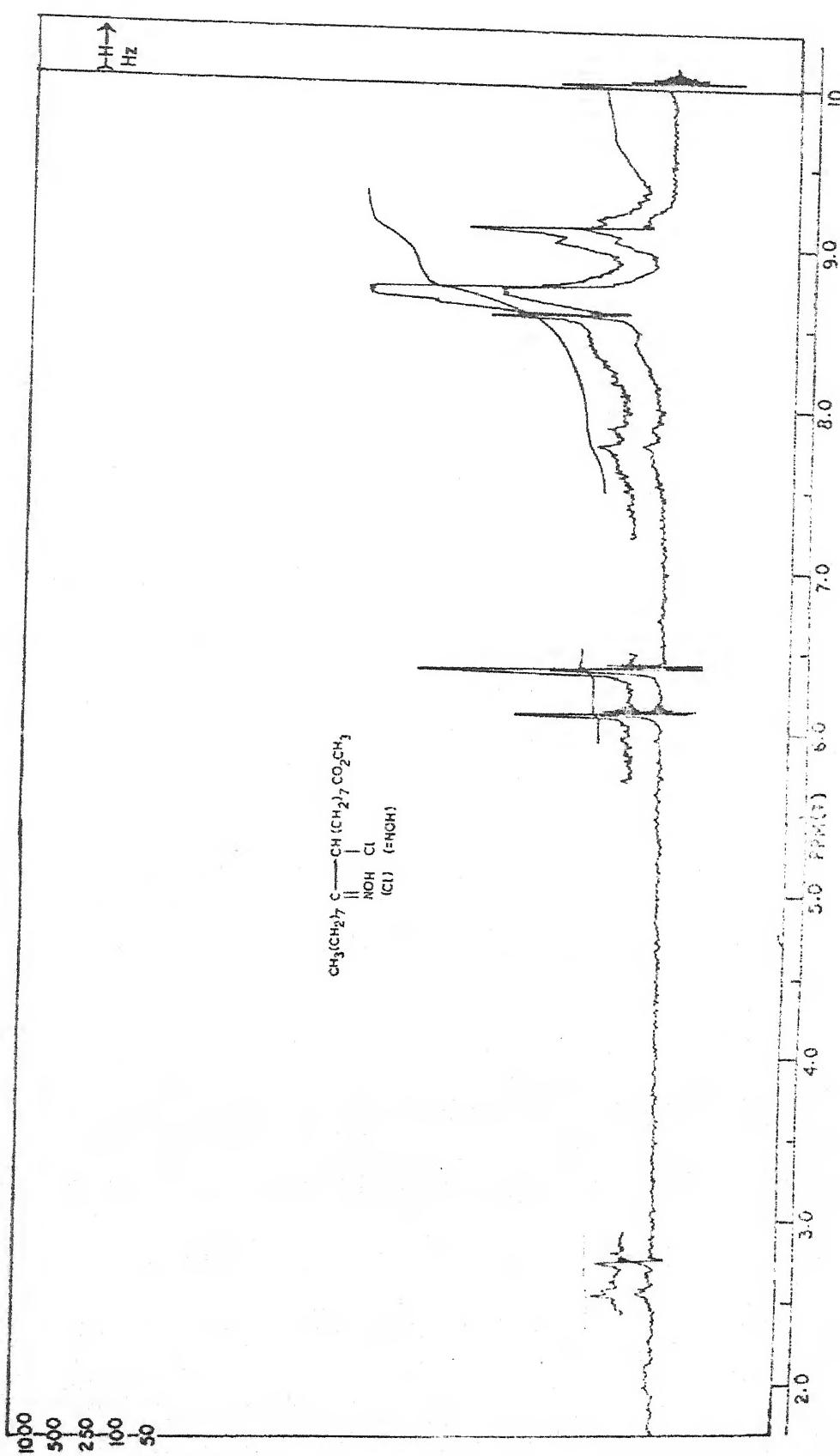


Fig. 3 - NMR spectrum of methyl 9(10)-chloro-10(9)-oximinoctadecanoate (IX)

examples cited in the literature this rearrangement is spontaneous or is promoted under the mildest conditions. The product chlorooxime is usually a solid, more stable than the nitroso isomer. But in this case isomerization seems to be very slow. About 0.5-1.0% of oxime was already present in the freshly prepared compound (VIII) as evidenced by TLC, IR and NMR. Oxime content increased at room temperature to a maximum of about 20% after about two weeks. As regards the formation of oxime our observations conform to those reported by Miller *et al*¹⁹.

Many nitrosochloro compounds dimerize to white solids³. We have found no evidence for appreciable dimerization. The persistent blue colour at 0-5° and the presence of the strong IR nitrosyll band as well as ~~non for mation of~~ ~~any solid adduct,~~ all indicate little, if any, dimer formation. Miller *et al*¹⁹ also did not report the formation of dimer during nitroschlorination of methyl oleate. Precedents exist for the suggestion that dimor formation is inhibited due to steric hindrance.

By treating with on excess of NOCl for a long time methyl oleate gave a product (X, 10%) in addition to products (VIII) and (IX). The product (X), having R_f value greater than the R_f of the oxime (IX) was characterized as methyl 9(10)-chloro-10(9)-nitriminostearate on the basis of microanalysis, IR and NMR.

Characterization of product (X)

Strong IR bands at 1550 and 1360 (NO_2) cm^{-1} and a medium band at 1640($\text{C}=\text{N}$) cm^{-1} characteristic of nitrimines were observed. NMR spectroscopy (Fig.4, Sheet IV) was useful in confirming the structure of product (X). In addition to expected signals for remainder of the molecule (τ 6.34, 7.76, 8.67, and 9.12), diagnostically useful signals were observed at τ 5.86 (mc) due to the methine proton adjacent to Cl atom (- $\text{CHCl}-$) and at τ 7.38 (t) For methylene group α to the nitrimino group [CH₂-C (=N. NO₂)-].

*Boswell
B7159*

The nitrimine (X) is formed by the oxidizing action of NOCl upon oxime (IX). The oxidizing action of NOCl to convert an oxime into nitrimine was first reported by Shiue *et al*²⁴. and later confirmed by other workers^{30,34}. The mechanism of nitrimine formation (eq.9) suggested by Freeman^{25,26} and supported by Boswell²⁷ seems adequate to account for the results obtained in this reaction.

Sheet-IV

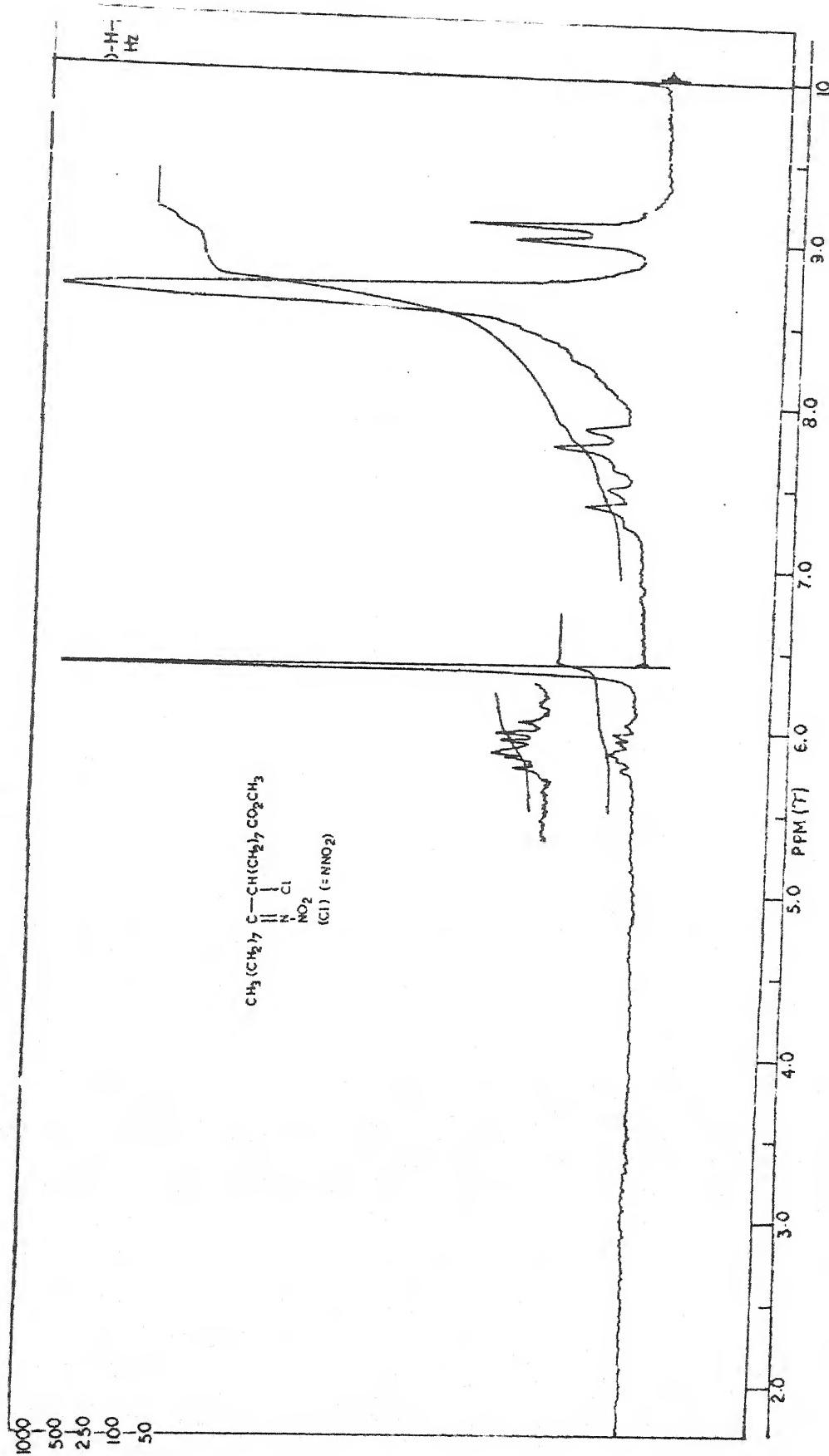


Fig. 4 - NMR spectrum of methyl 9(10) – chloro- 10(9) – nitriminotetradecanoate (X)

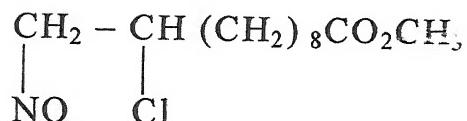
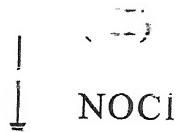
The formation of nitrimine was not reported by Miller *et al*¹⁹. However, they observed that when methylene chloride solution of compound VIII was treated with NOCl for a long time, infrared showed the presence of nitro group in the product. From the foregoing results it is surmised that the nitro band is due to the formation of nitrimine which has been isolated and characterized in the present study.

Nitrosochlorination of methyl 10-undecenoate (XI)

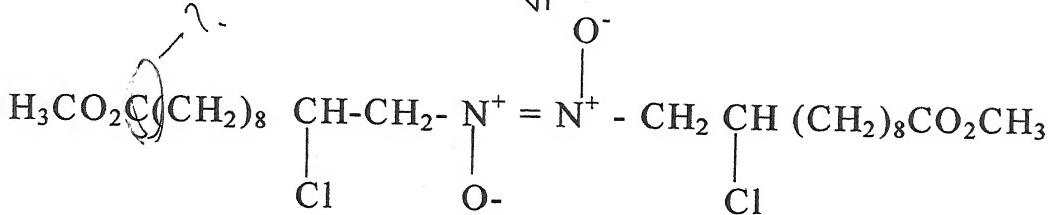
The study of the reactions of 10-undecenoic acid is interesting in fat chemistry due to a variety of reasons. The unique feature of 10-undecenoic acid is the presence of a terminal double bond. In order to probe the regioselectivity of nitrosyl chloride addition on an unsymmetrically substituted olefinic fatty acid, methyl ester of 10-undecenoic acid, XI, was selected as a model substrate for nitrosochlorination reaction.

Reaction of methyl 10-undecenoate (XI) with NOCl *in situ*, resulted in the formation of four distinct products (XII-XV) as evidenced by analytical TLC. These components were separated by silica gel column chromatography. Formation of a chloro nitroso product (XII) was indicated by the appearance of a bluish green colour in the reaction mixture. IR spectrum of the product also revealed the formation of nitrosyl chloride adduct. Work-up of the reaction mixture yielded no appreciable amount of the adduct in the pure form as it easily dimerizes or rearranges to an oxime.

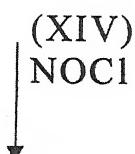
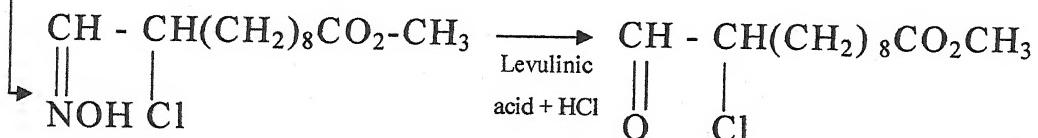
Scheme 2



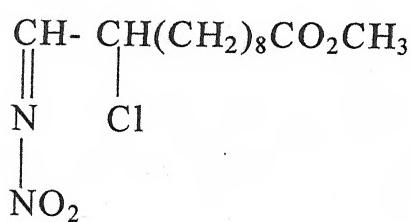
(XII)



(XIII)



(XVI)



(XV)

Characterization of the compound (XIII)

The product (XIII) separated as white solid (mp 95⁰), gave satisfactory microanalysis for (C₁₂H₂₂O₃NCl)₂. The molecular mass determination by Rast method¹¹¹ in camphor supported the molecular formula (C₁₂H₂₂O₃NCl)₂ for compound (XIII). It gave positive Beilstein test. The IR spectrum (in nujol) showed, besides the bands usually found in long-chain fatty esters absorption at 1270 cm⁻¹ indicative of dimer formation (Fig.5, Sheet V). The absence of nitrosyl band in the region 1520-1570 cm⁻¹ further supported the dimer formation. The NMR spectrum (Fig.6 Sheet VI) also supported the structure of compound (XIII) as dimer of methyl 10-chloro-11-nitrosoundecanoate. The NMR spectrum exhibited the significant signal at τ 5.42 for six protons due to the methine protons adjacent to chlorine atom and methylene groups adjacent to



nitrogen (-CH₂-N⁺=). Other usual fatty ester signals were observed



at τ 6.34 (s, 6H, ester methyl), 7.77 (protons α to the ester-C- group) and 8.67 (br s, shielded chain methylenes). The dimer (XIII) appears to have a *trans* structure as suggested by Gowcnlock and Luttke⁷ in their IR spectral studies on dimers nitroso of compounds.

Characterization of the compound (XIV)

The compound (XIV) was separated as a white solid (mp 42⁰) in pure form having H_f 0.2. It responded to Beilstein test. The compound (XIV) was analyzed for C₁₂H₂₂O₃NCl. Its IR spectrum gave absorption at 3300 (OH) 1680 (C=N) cm⁻¹ attributed to the oximino group and at 720 cm⁻¹ to C-Cl linkage. Its NMR spectrum was more informative regarding the position of oximino group in the fatty acid chain. It exhibited an apparent singlet at τ 2.6 which can be assigned to the proton of oximino group (=N-OH). The proton was found to be exchangeable with deuterium. The proton at C-11 appeared at τ 3.6 (-CH=NOH), which conclusively proves the attachment of oximino group to the terminal carbon atom (C-11). Methine proton adjacent to chlorine atom displayed a signal at τ 5.66.

Sheet-V

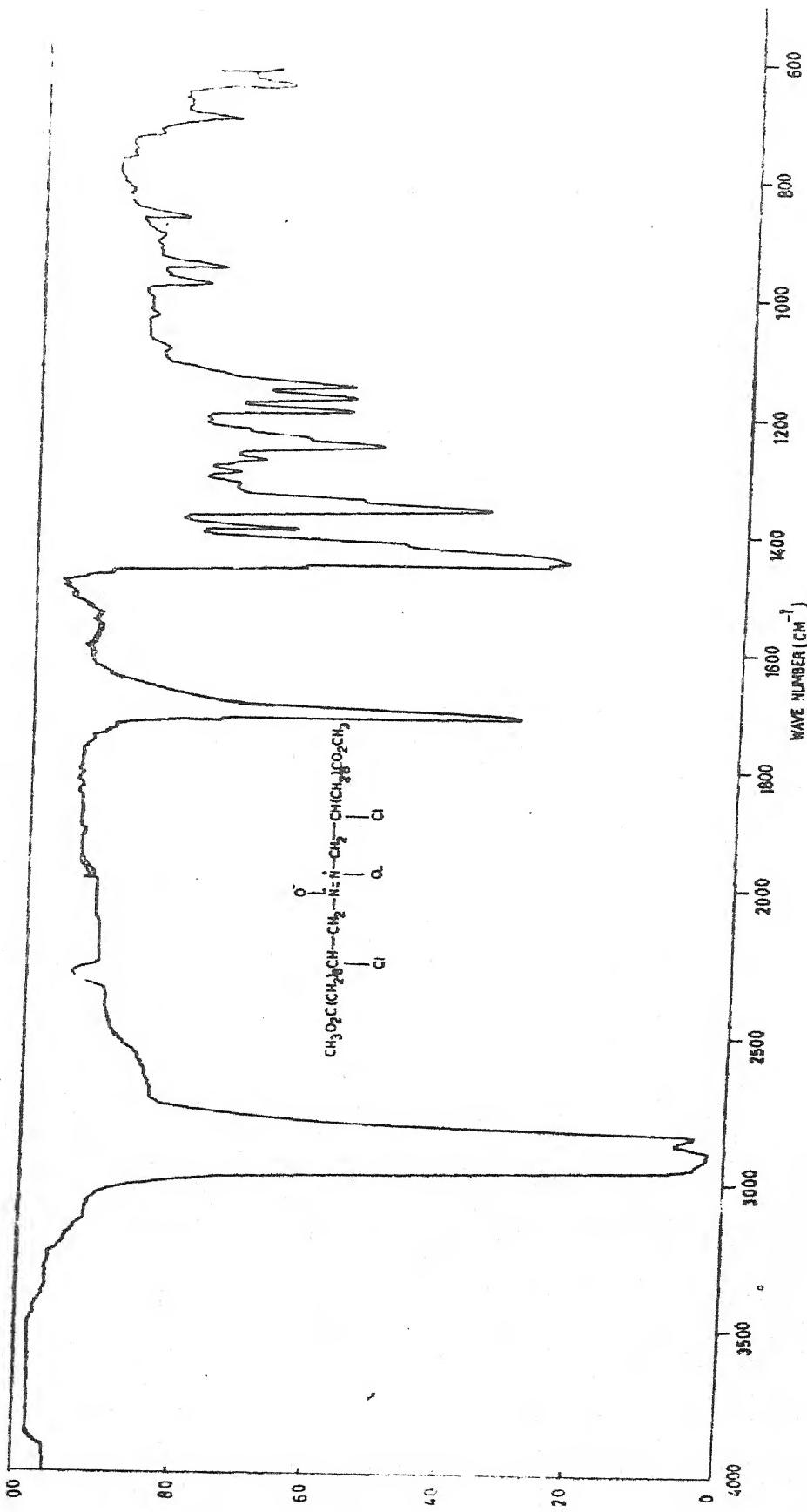


Fig. 5. IR spectrum of dimer of methyl 10-chloro-11-nitrosoundcanoate (XIII)

Sheet-VI

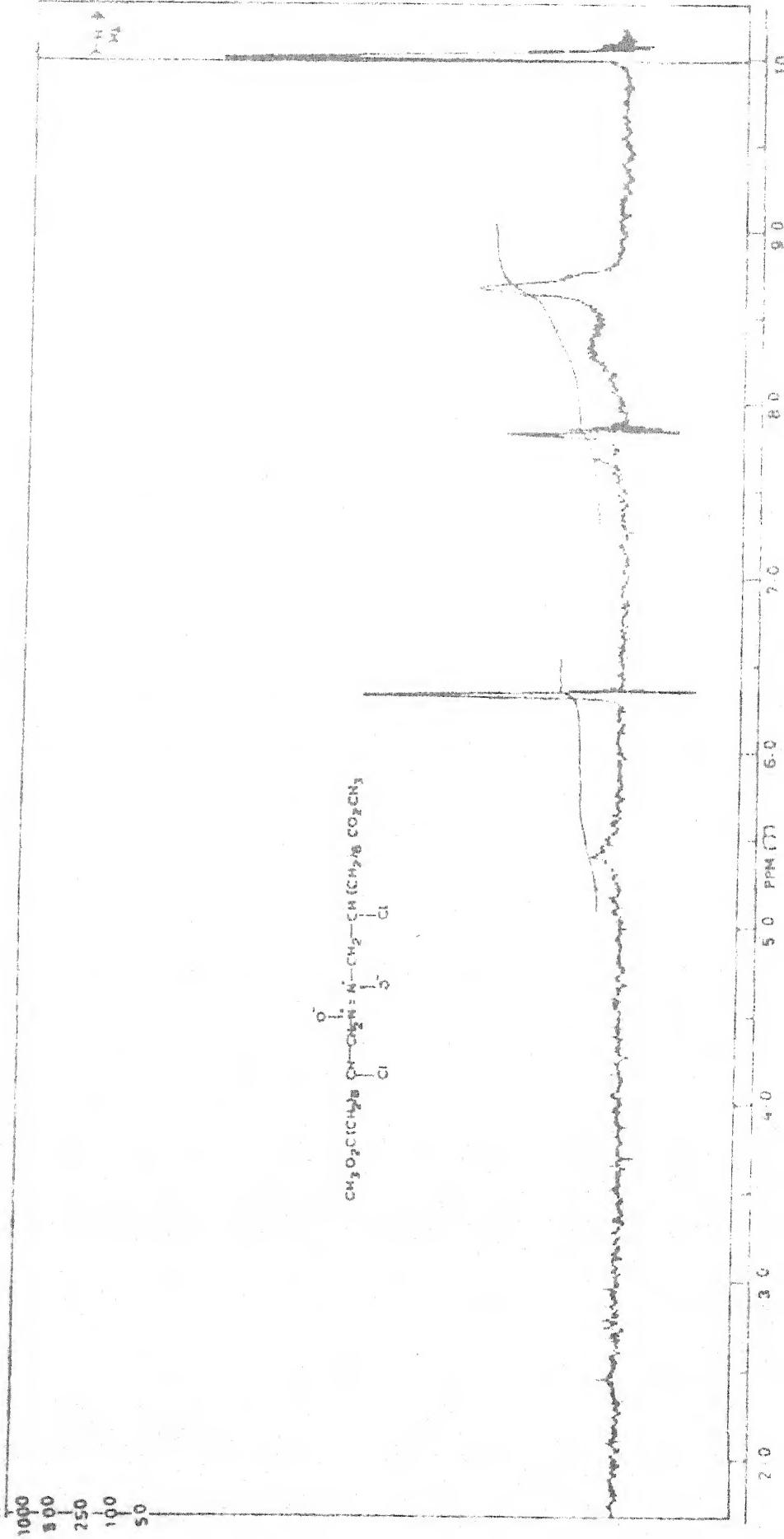


Fig.6. NMR spectrum of compound (XIII)

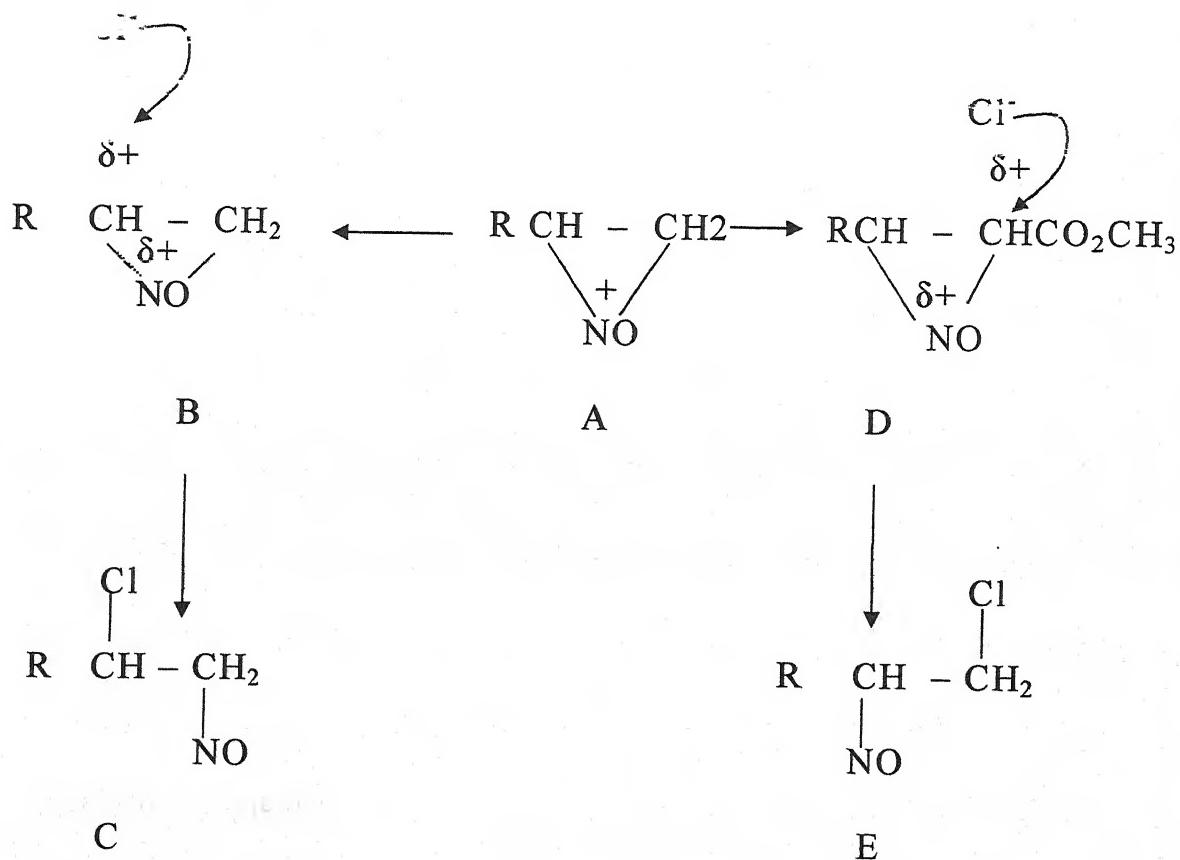
Other NMR signals were observed at τ 6.34 (s, 3H, -C(=O)-OCH₃), 7.76 (2H, α to the ester -C(=O)-group), 8.65 (br s, chain methylene protons). Thus the spectral data established the structure as methyl 10-chloro-11-oximino-undecanoate (XIV). Further support to the structure was obtained from the analysis of the corresponding carbonyl compound (XVI) obtained by the deoximation of the product (XIV) with the help of levulinic and hydrochloric acid¹¹². The deoximation formed a compound (XVI) which was shown to have an aldehydic group. The presence of aldehydic group in product (XVI) was confirmed with the help of chemical tests and spectroscopy. It gave yellow colour on heating with NaOH and reduce Fehling's solution. It also gave a positive DNP test on TLC. IR spectrum showed the disappearance of bands at 3300 and 1680 cm⁻¹ (shown by oxime) and new bands appeared at 1710 (C=O) and 2800 (aldehyde C-H str) cm⁻¹ attributed to the aldehydic function.

Characterization of compound (XV)

The compound (XV), which migrated ahead of oxime (XIV) on TLC plate, analyzed for C₁₂ H₂₁ N₂O₄Cl (positive Beilstein test). The IR spectrum showed bands at 1630 (C=N) and 1550 (NO₂) cm⁻¹ characteristic of nitromino group. NMR showed significant signals at τ 3.84 for one proton at C-11 (-CH=N.NO₂) and a multiplet centered at τ 5.0 for methane proton adjacent to chlorine atom (-CHCl-). Other NMR signals

usually displayed by the fatty acid esters (τ 6.34, 7.76, and 8.68) were also present. The product was thus assigned the structure as methyl 10-chlo-11-nitriminoudecanoate.

The formation of only one isomer (XII) in the nitrosochlorination of 10-undecenoate indicated that the reaction is regiospecific and addition of NOCl is in accordance with the Markownikoff's rule. The exclusive formation of (XII) as primary product in the NOCl addition to methyl 10-undecenoate is consistent with the intermediacy of a three membered ring ion, A opening of which proceeds *via* the lower energy transition state (B rather than D when R can stabilize an incipient positive charge).



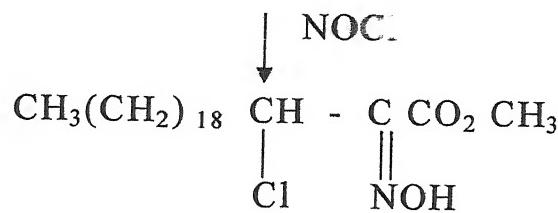
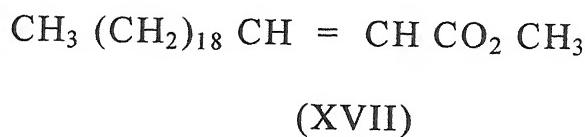
Further the results showed that nitrosochlorination is the only primary reaction and the secondary products were formed as a result of two simultaneous pathways. Dimerization leads to product (XIII) and isomerization followed by oxidation yields an oxime (XIII) and nitrimine (IX). Dimerization seems to be much more feasible in methyl 10-undecenoate than in methyl oleate probably due to steric reasons. Isomerization of nitroso compound to an oxime also seems to be faster than in the case of methyl oleate as evidenced by the yields. Chloronitrimine formation was found to be - 8% in yield when excess of nitrosyl chloride was used. None of the remainder is oxidized to the chloronitro compound apparently because of isomerization to chloroxime and subsequent oxidation of chloronitrimine.

Nitrosochlorination of methyl docos-*trans*-2-enoate (XVII)

Methylene chloride solution of methyl docos-*trans*-2-enoate was treated with NOCl (*in situ*) in a stoppered flask at 0-5°C by keeping in a refrigerator for about a month. Monitoring the reaction by TLC showed that the reaction is extremely slow and that sample from the reaction mixture after the work-up revealed the presence of three components, which were subjected to column chromatographic separation. The major component was found to be the starting material.

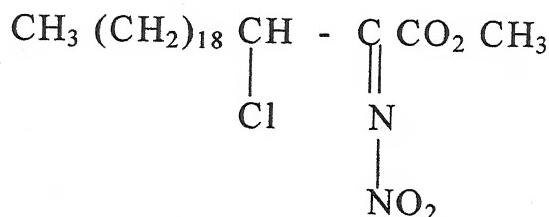
Only about 10% of the compound (XVII) has reacted. The products were characterized on the basis of elemental analysis, IR and NMR.

Scheme 3



(XVIII)

+



(XIX)

Characterization of the compound (XVIII)

The compound (XVIII) gave satisfactory elemental analysis for $\text{C}_{22}\text{H}_{44}\text{O}_3\text{NCI}$ (positive Beilstein test). Compound (XVIII) gave informative IR spectrum with bands at 3300 and 1640 cm^{-1} indicative of the oximino group. NMR spectroscopy was useful in confirming the structure of compound (XVIII) as methyl 2-oximino-3-chlorodocosanoate. A signal was obtained for a single proton at $\tau 2.76$ (signal disappeared on

addition of D₂O) attributed to the oximino group proton (=NOH). A triplet was observed at τ 6.1 for methine proton adjacent to chlorine atom. The chemical shift and multiplicity of -CHCl- signal confirms the attachment of chlorine atom to C-3 instead of C-2. Other proton signals were exhibited at τ



6.34 (s, 3H, -C-OCH₃), 8.75 (br s, chain methylene protons) and 9.12 (distorted t, 3H, terminal methyl group).

Characterization of the compound (XIX)

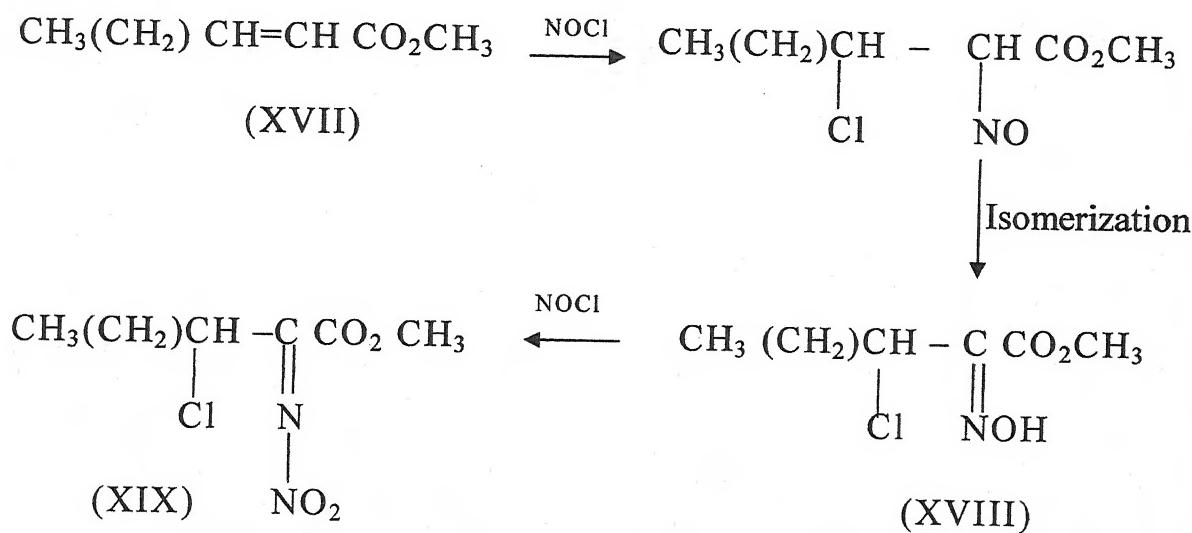
The compound (XIX) was analyzed for C₂₃H₄₃O₄N₂Cl. It responded to Beilstein test. A side from elemental analysis, proof of structure for compound (XIX) was also obtained from spectroscopic evidence. The IR spectrum gave bands at 1640 (C=N), 1550 and 1360 (NO₂) cm⁻¹ characteristic of nitrimino group. The NMR data were also consistent with the structure methyl 2-nitrimino-3-chlorodocosanoate for the compound (XIX). It exhibited a triplet at τ 5.6 for methine proton adjacent to chlorine atom (CHCl-). Usual



fatty ester signal were also observed at τ 6.36 (s, 3H, -C-COCH₃), 8.65 (br s, chain methylene protons) and 9.1 (distorted t, 3H,

terminal methyl). The chemical shift and multiplicity of methine proton signal adjacent to chlorine atom confirm the attachment of chlorine atom to carbon 3 as in the case of oximino compound (XVIII).

The formation of compound (XVIII) and (XIX) can well be explained through the nitrosochlorination of compound (XVII) as the primary reaction. The isomerisation of nitroso compound will give an oxime (XVIII) which on subsequent oxidation by NOCl will provide a nitrime (XIX).

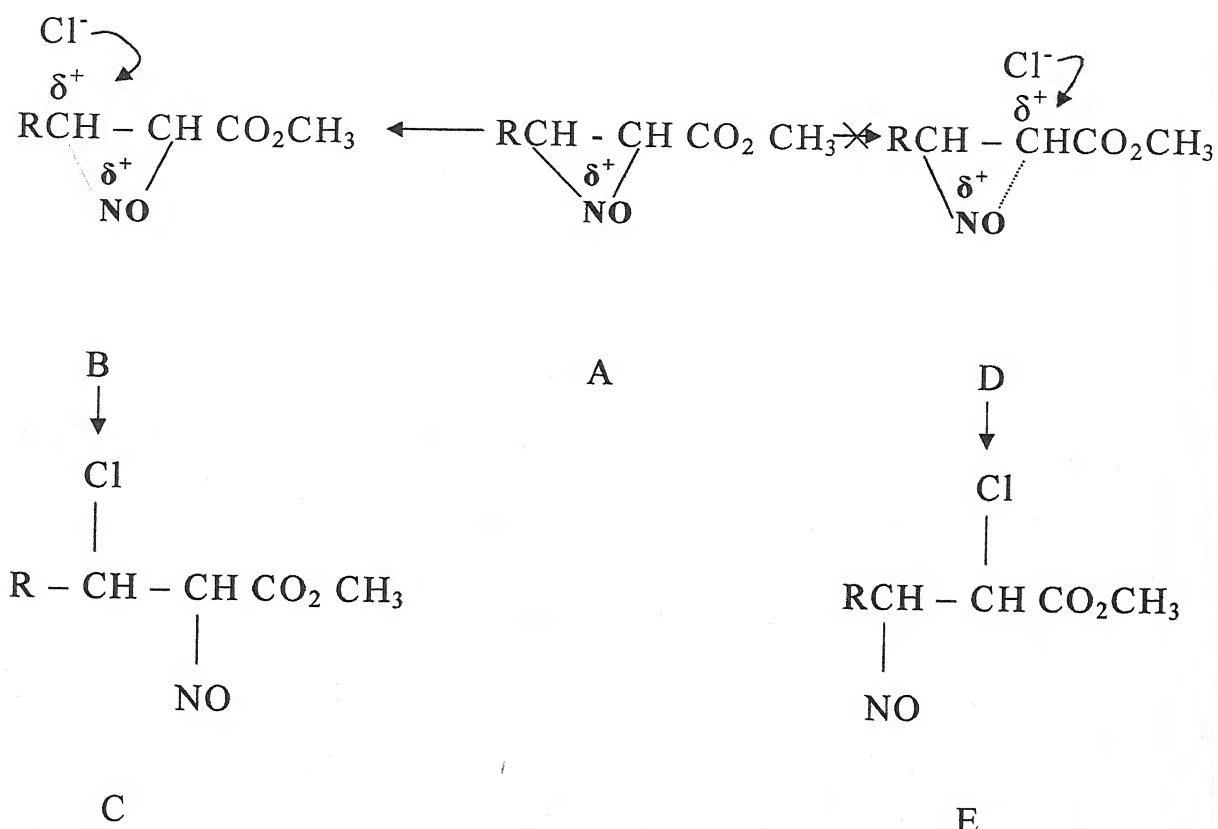


In case of α, β -unsaturated acid (XVII) only one isomer resulted during nitrosochlorination. The presence of electron



 -withdrawing group ($-\text{C}-\text{OCH}_3$) adjacent to double bond is involved in opening of nitrosonium ion intermediates. The electron withdrawing

group will destabilize the transition state D relative to B and hence NO-carbonyl regiospecific NOCl adduct C will be formed.



The considerable slow ~~rate~~ of the reaction is attributed to the proximity of the double bond to the electron withdrawing ester carbonyl function. Thus the decrease in the nucleophilic character of α , β -unsaturation slows down the electrophilic reaction of NOCl addition.

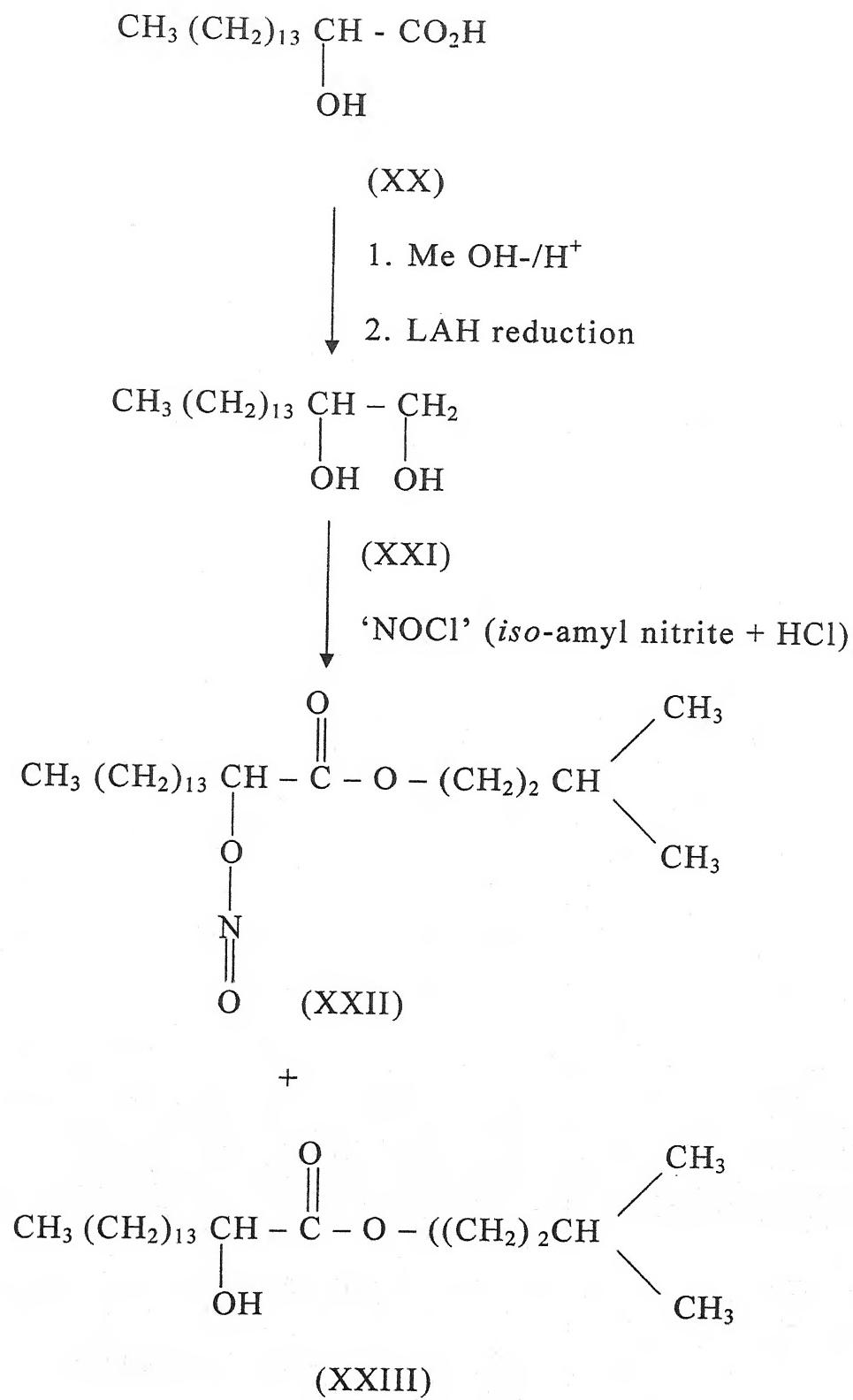
Reaction of nitrosyl chloride with fatty 1, 2 diol

(1, 2-hexadecandiol, XXI)

The reaction of 1, 2-diols with nitrosyl chloride has received little attention. The present work was undertaken in order to extend the investigation of NOCl reaction to fatty 1, 2-diols, with a view to ascertain the nature of the reaction products and their spectral behaviour.

The diol used as a substrate was prepared from 2-hydroxyhexadecanonic acid (XX) which was obtained as one of the co-products during the preparation of C₁₆ α, β-unsaturated acid. Methylene chloride solution of 1, 2-hexadecandiol (XXI) on treatment with an excess of nitrosyl chloride in situ at room temperature afforded a mixture of two products together with some unreacted compound as evidenced by analytical TLC. The components were resolved by silica column. Structures of compounds (XVII and XXIII) were corroborated by microanalysis, IR, NMR and Mass. The reaction carried out in the present investigation is outlined in Scheme 4.

Scheme 4



Characterization of compound (XXII)

Microanalysis of the compound (XXII) supported the formula $C_{21}H_{41}NO_4$ (negative Beilstein test). IR spectrum exhibited band at 1630 cm^{-1} indicative of a nitrito group ($C-O-N=O$). IR band at 1730 cm^{-1} was also present showing the presence of an ester carbonyl group. NMR spectrum showed a two proton resonance at τ 5.9 (mc) corresponding to methylene group adjacent to oxygen atom ($-O-CH_2-$) and $-CH_2-O$, a signal at τ 8.4 was exhibited for methine proton $(-CH\swarrow\searrow)$. A broad singlet at τ 8.7 was observed for shielded methylene protons. NMR spectrum also showed apparent doublet centered at τ 9.1 corresponding to three methyls. The structure of compound (XXII) as *iso*-amyl 2-nitritohexadecanoate was further supported by mass spectrometry (Fig. 7, Sheet VII). The genesis of important fragment ions are discussed.

The mass spectrum of compound (XXII) gave no molecular ion peak at m/e 371 ($C_{21}H_{41}NO_4$). The highest peak was observed at m/e 201 with other important peaks at m/e 191, 188, 187, 173, 157, 117, 87, 86, 85, 73, 72, 71 (base peak), 70, 69, 58, 57, 56 and 55 and other low mass ion species. The formation of some of the more significant ions can be rationalized according to Schemes below. These fragmentation pathways are tentative since the mass spectra of appropriate deuterated analogous have not been examined.

m/e 201 [M⁺. (371) - CH₃ - 155]

This fragment ion which agrees with the loss of -CH₃ and loss of mass unit 155 from the expected molecular ion is shown in Scheme 5.

Sheet VII

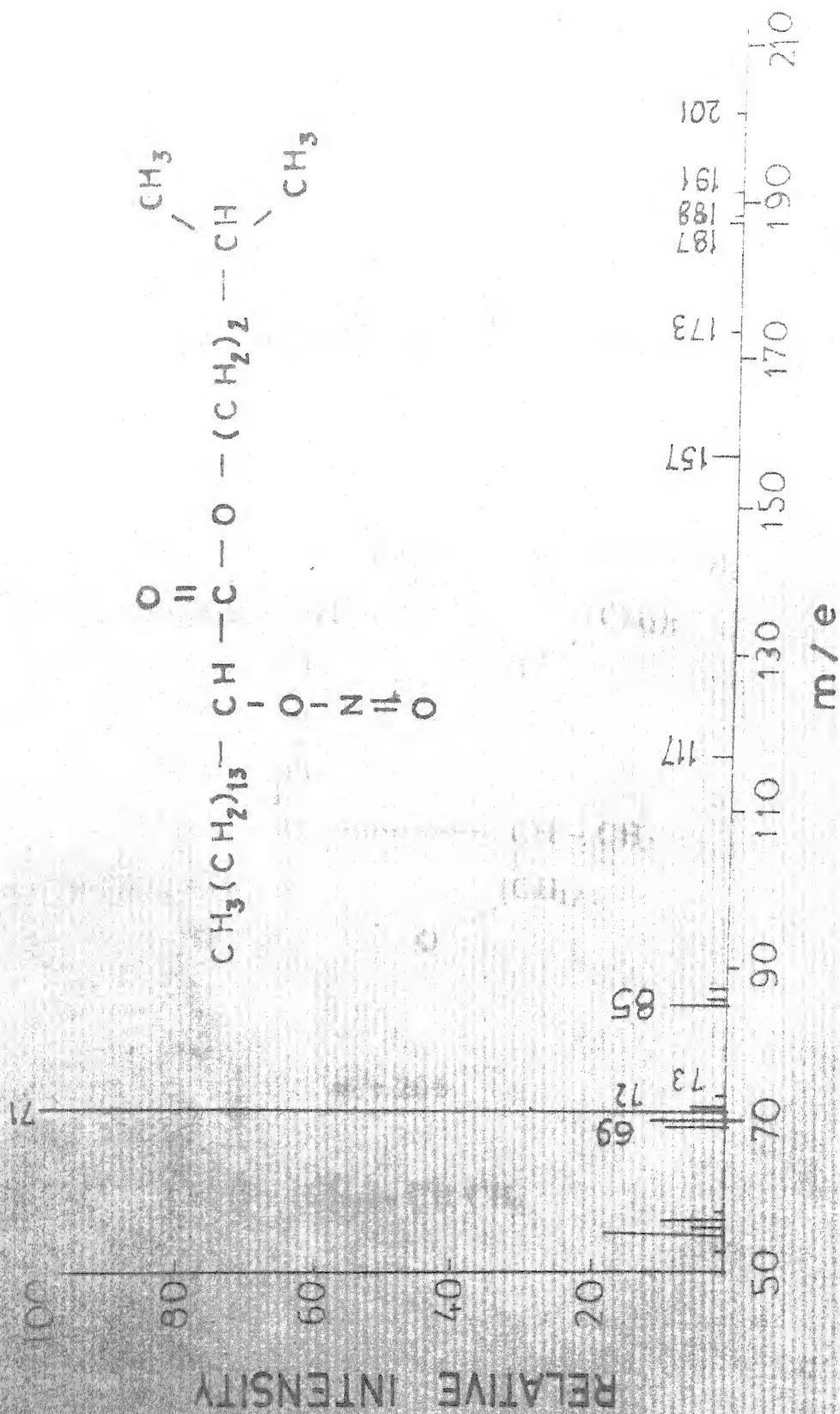
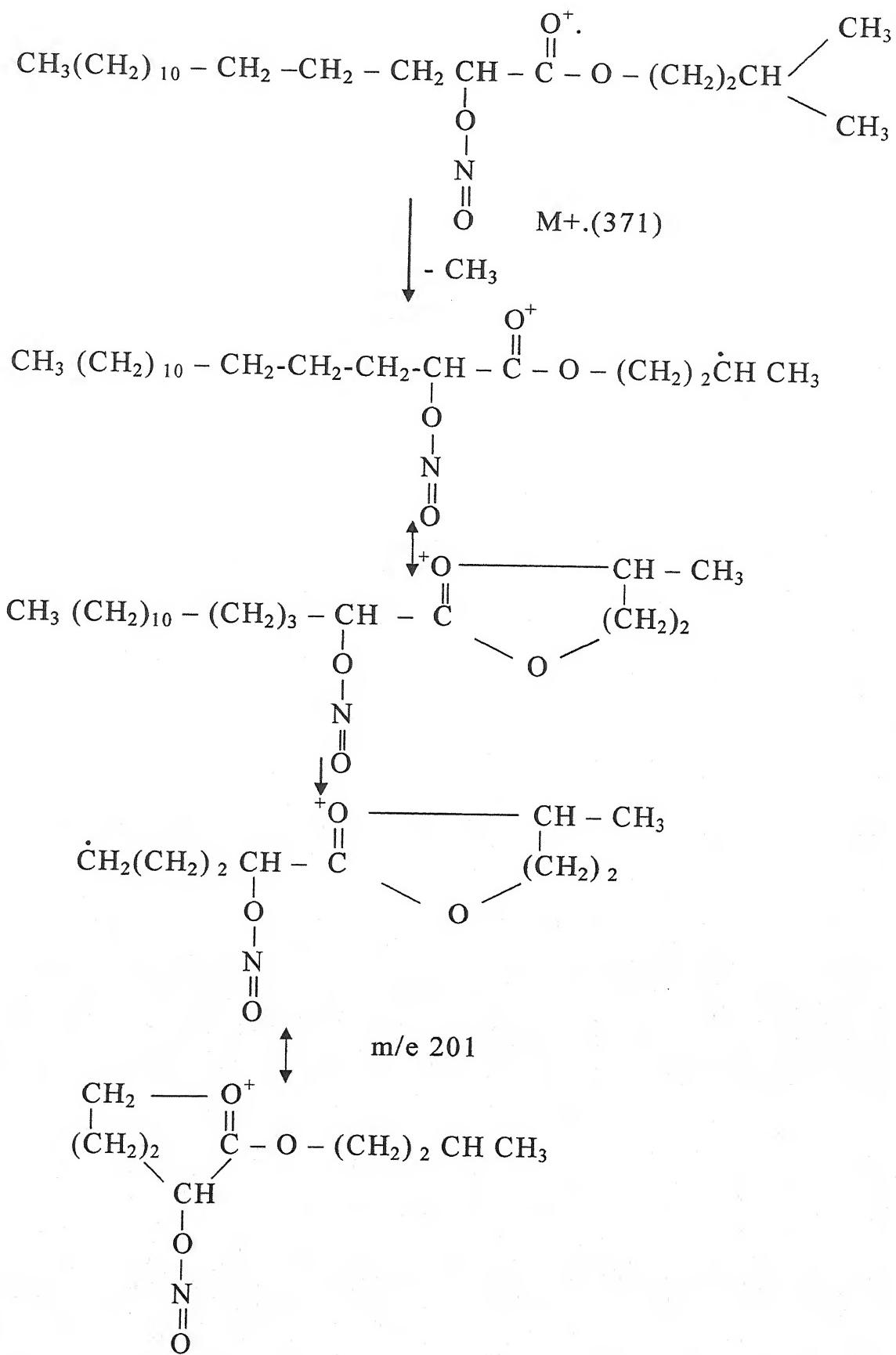


Fig. 7. Mass spectrum of iso-amyl 2-nitrohexadecanoate (XVII)

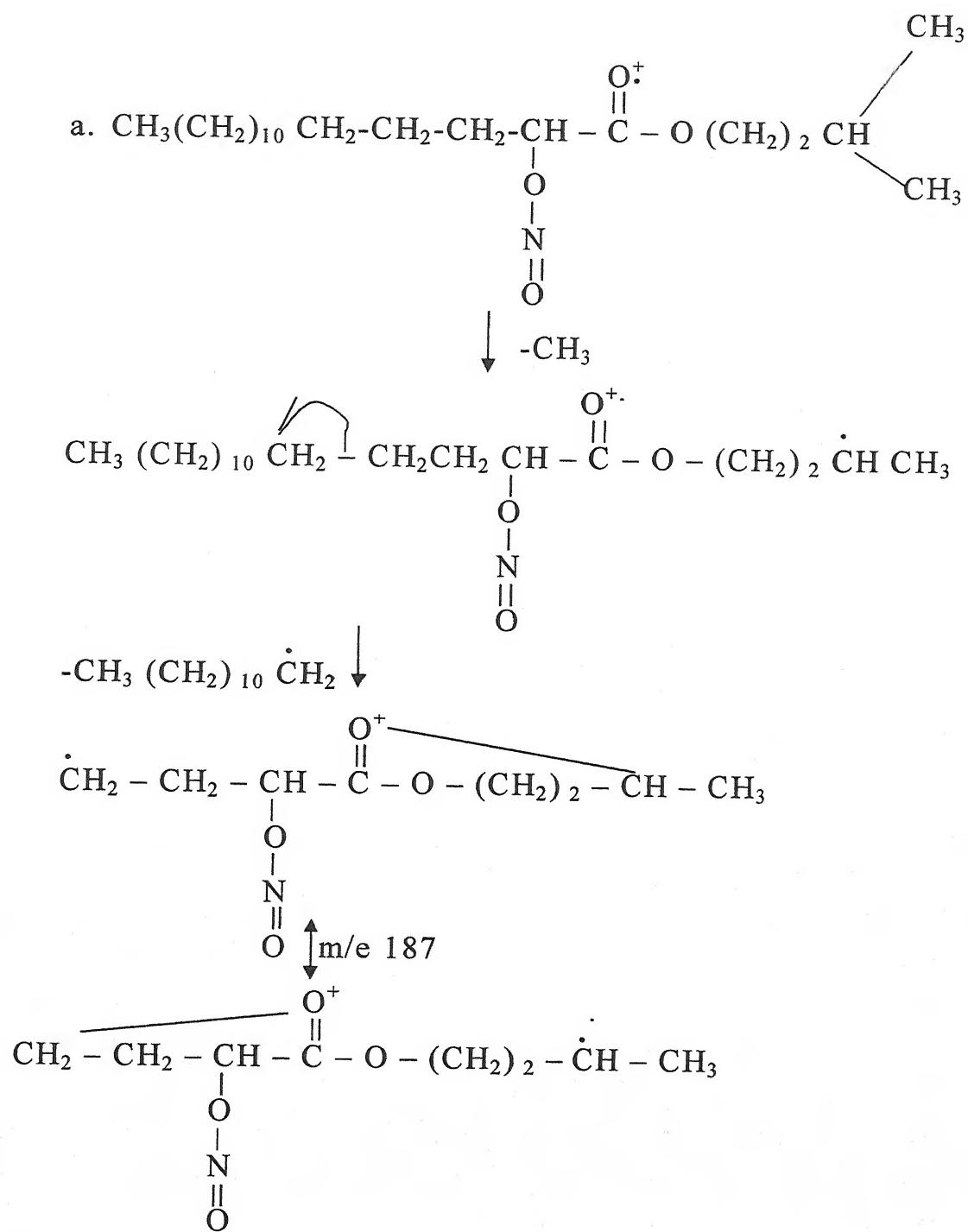
Scheme 5



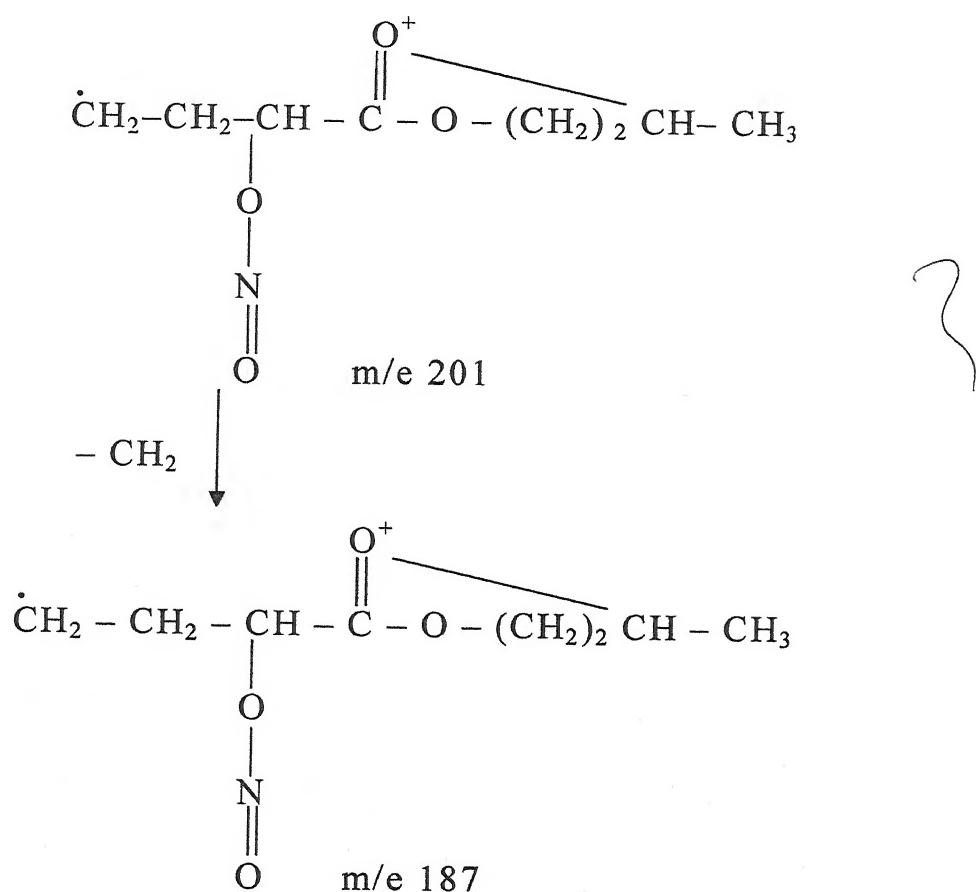
m/e 187 ($C_8H_{13}O_4N$) $M^+.- 184$ or (m/e 201-14)

Obviously, this fragment ion is obtained either (a) by the loss of mass units 15 and 169 from the molecular ion or (b) by the loss of mass unit 14 form m/e 201 (Scheme 6).

Scheme 6



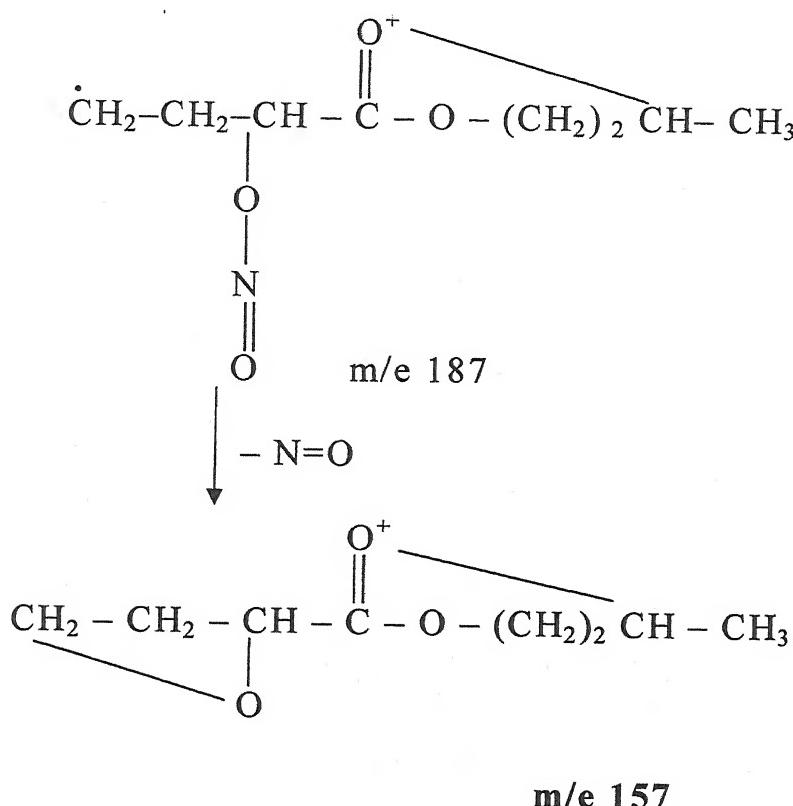
b. From Scheme 5 (201-14)



m/e 157 (m/e 187 - N = O)

The fragment ion m/e 157 can be conveniently shown as arising from the ion m/e 187 (Scheme 7).

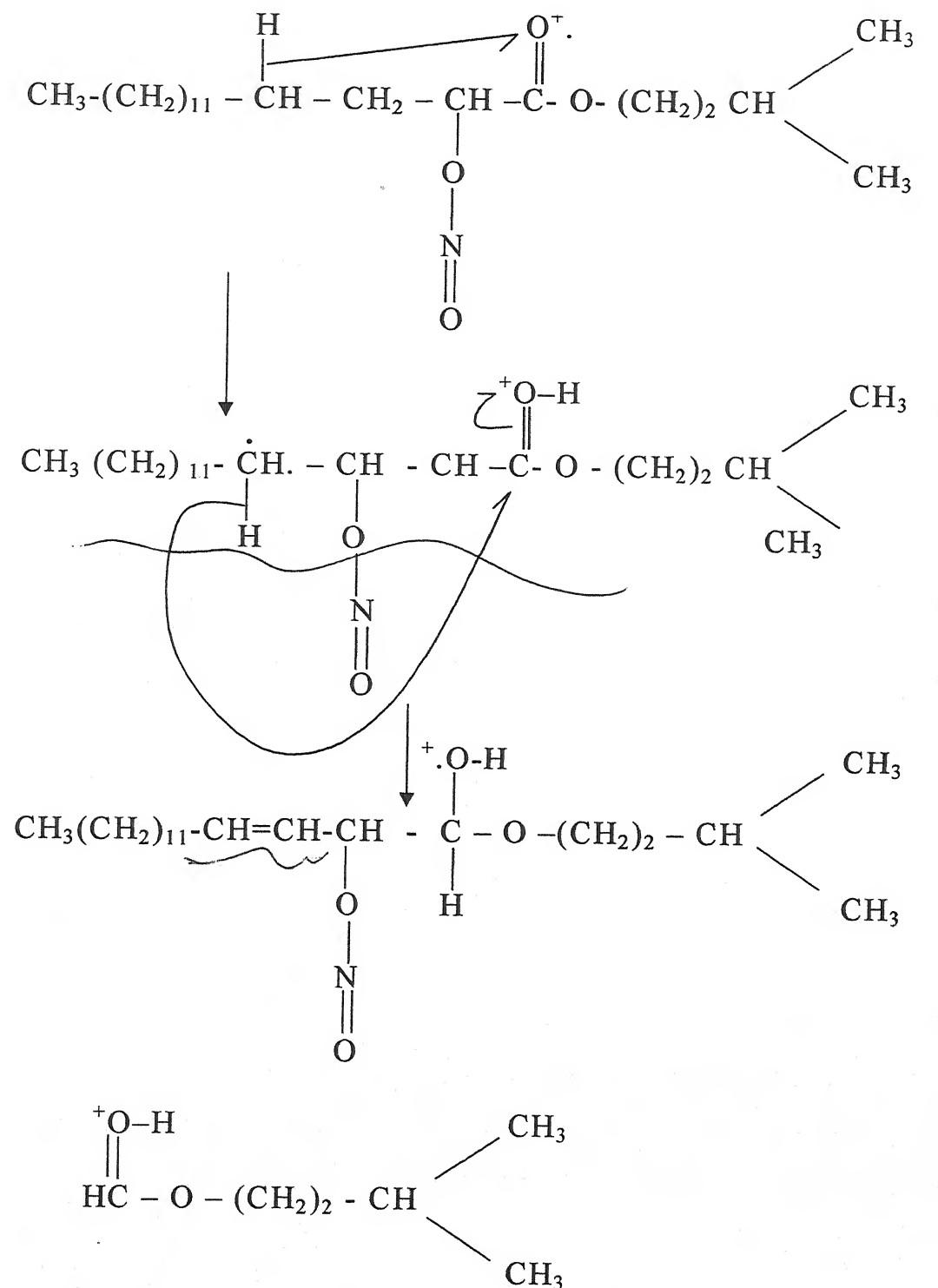
Scheme 7



m/e 117

The formation of this ion may be rationalized according to Scheme given below.

Scheme 8

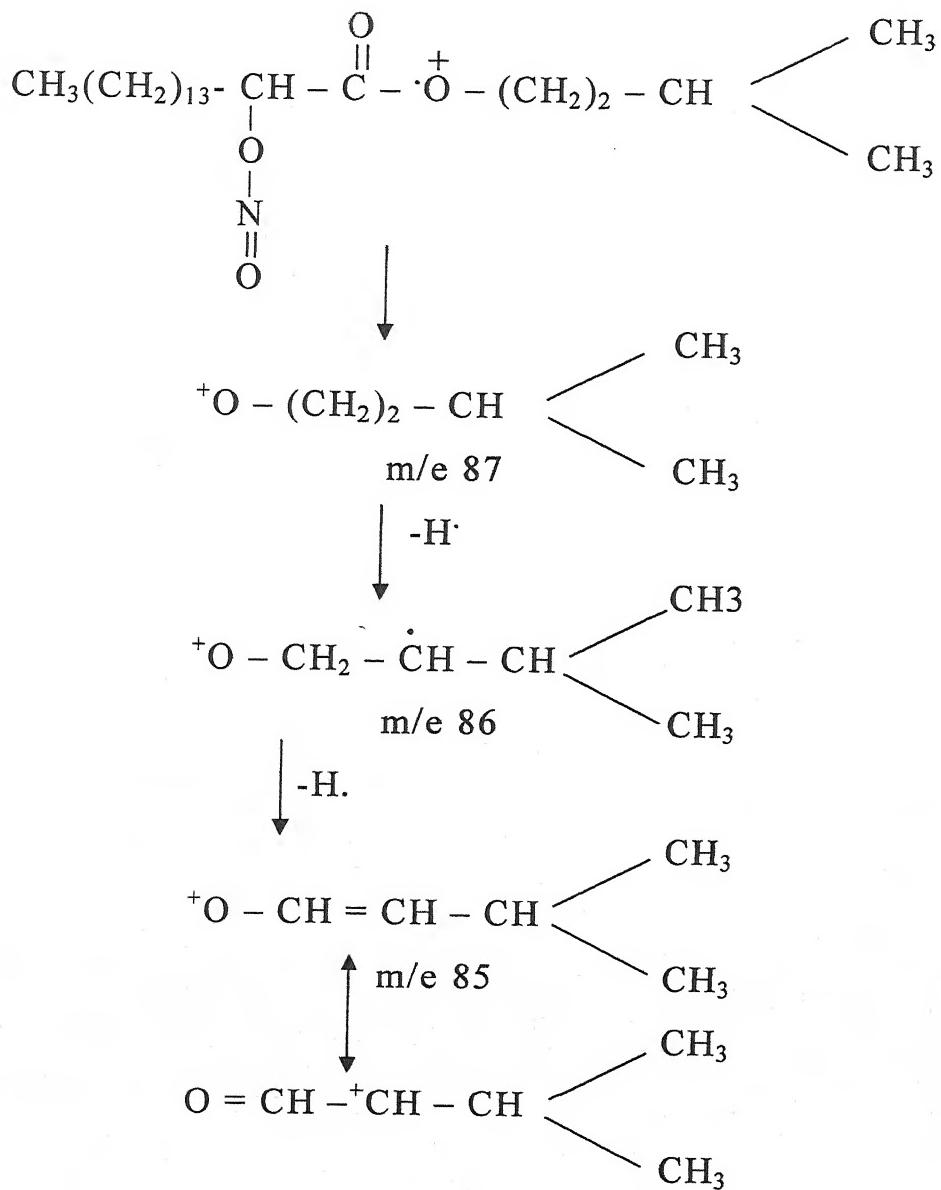


m/e 117

m/e 87, 86 and 85

The mass ion peaks at m/e 87, 86, and 85 may be explained to arise as below.

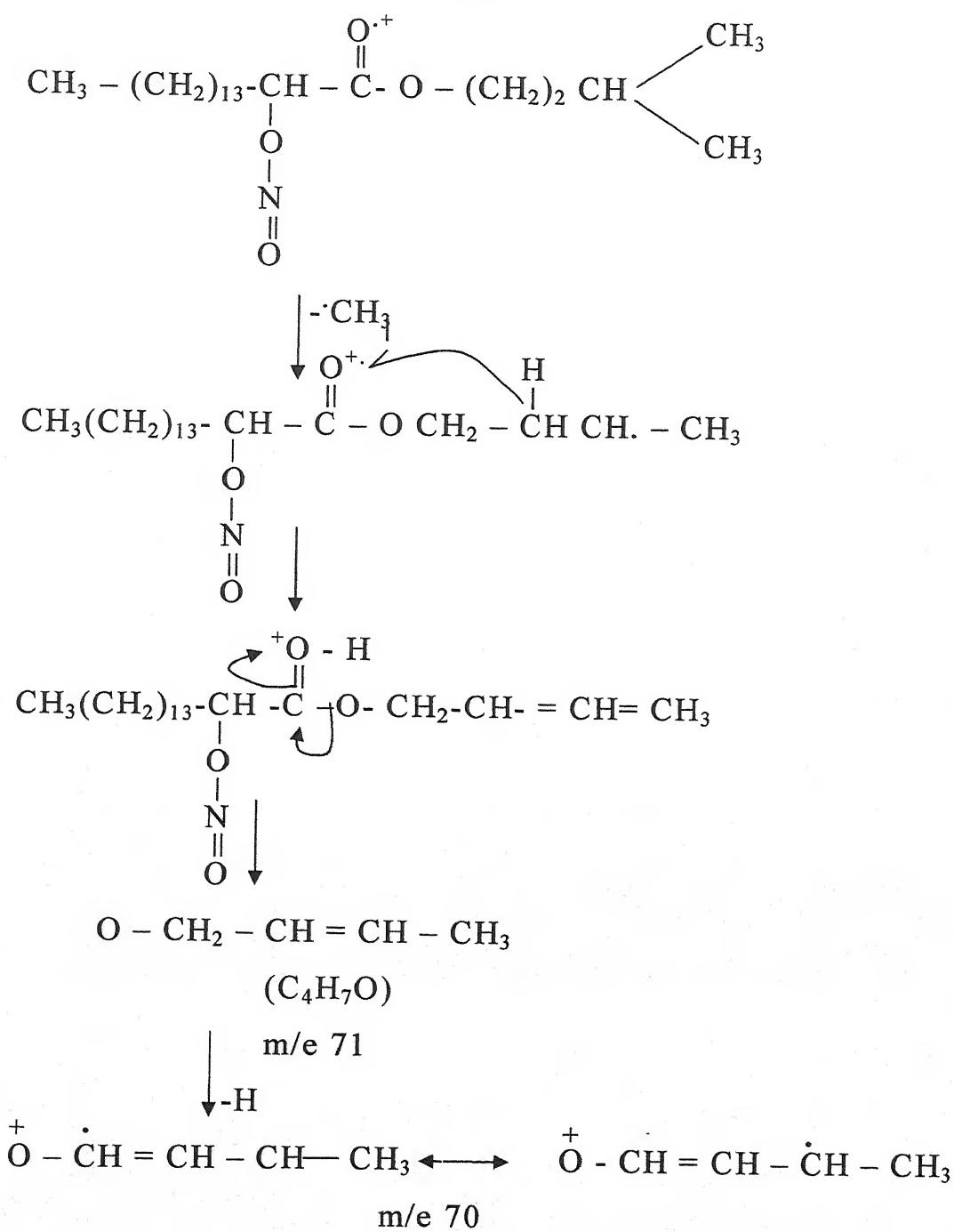
Scheme 9

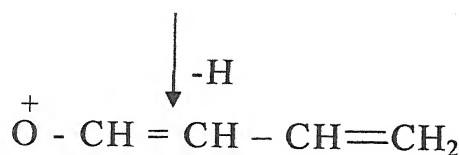


m/e 71 (base peak), 70 and 69

The fragment ion peak at m/e 71 constitute the base peak of the spectrum (Scheme 10).

Scheme 10



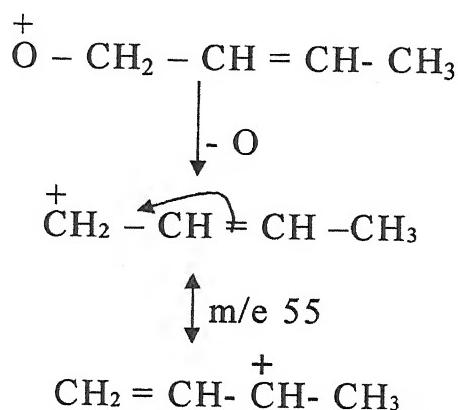


m/e 69

m/e 55

This hydrocarbon fragment ion may be shown to arise from the ion m/e 71 as below.

Scheme 11



Characterization of compound (XXIII)

The compound (XXIII) was analyzed correctly for $C_{21}H_{42}O_3$ (negative Beilstein test). IR spectrum displayed bands at 3350 cm^{-1} characteristic of hydroxyl group and at 1730 cm^{-1} due to ester carbonyl group. The NMR spectrum showed an apparent multiplet centered at τ 5.9 due to methylene protons adjacent to oxygen atom ($-O-CH_2-$) and $-CH-O$, a signal at τ 8.4 due to methine proton ($-CH-$)

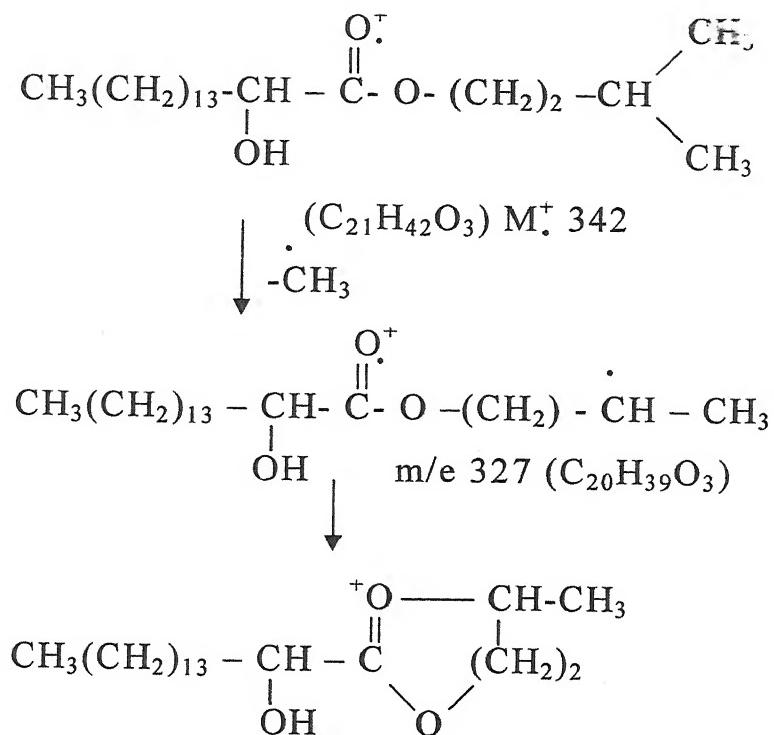
and an apparent doublet centered at τ 9.05 due to methyl protons (9H). A broad singlet at τ 8.65 for shielded methylenes was also observed. The NMR spectrum agrees well with the assigned structure for compound (XXIII) as *iso*-amyl 2-hydroxyhexadecanoate.

The mass spectrum of *iso*-amyl 2-hydroxyhexadecanoate (XXIII) (Fig. 8, Sheet VIII) also gave no molecular peak at m/e 342 ($C_{12}H_{42}O_3$), but other significant peaks at m/e 327 ($M-CH_3$), 313, 295, 294, 286, 284, 225, 174, 133, 132 (base peak), 116, 113, 111, 109, 104, 100, 99, 97, 95, 90, 85, 84, 83, 82, 81, 74, 71, 70, 69, 68, 67, 57, 56, 55, and 54.

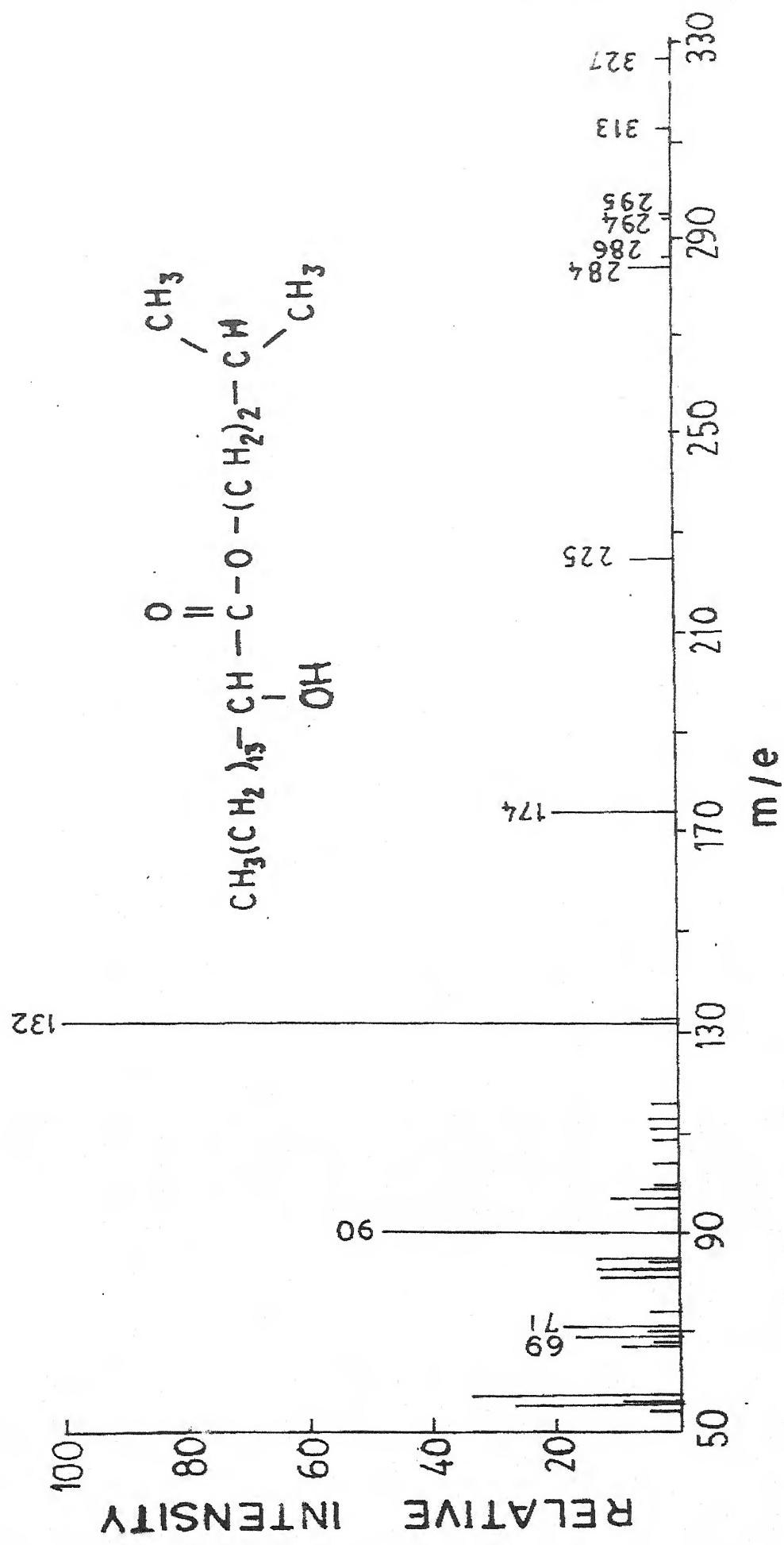
m/e 327 ($M-CH_3$)

The following mechanism has been proposed to account for the base loss of CH_3 from the molecular ion m/e 342 (Scheme 12).

Scheme 12



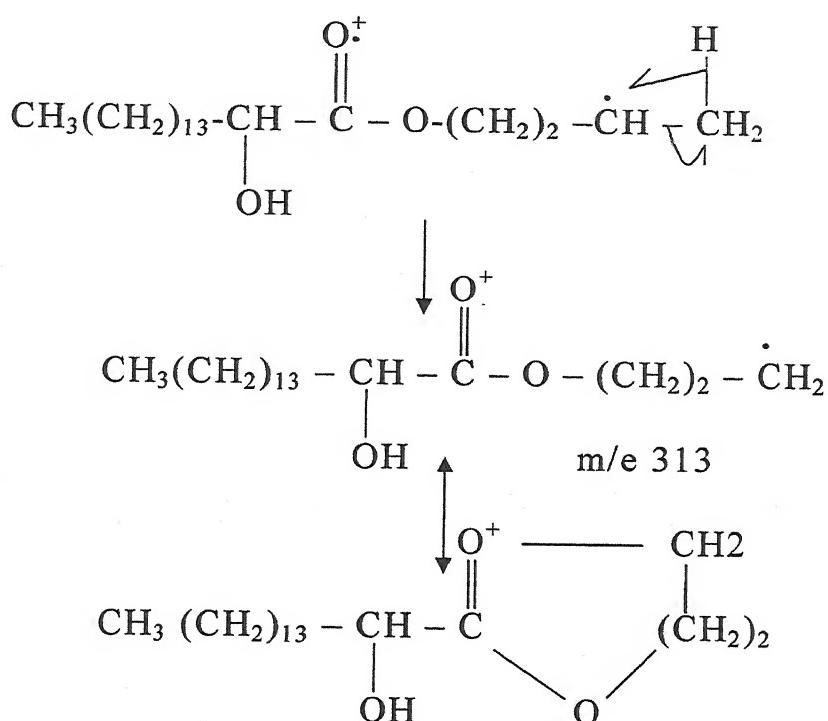
SHEET-VIII



m/e 313 (m/e 327-14)

The fragment ion m/e 313 can be rationally derived from the ion m/e 327, as depicted in Scheme 13.

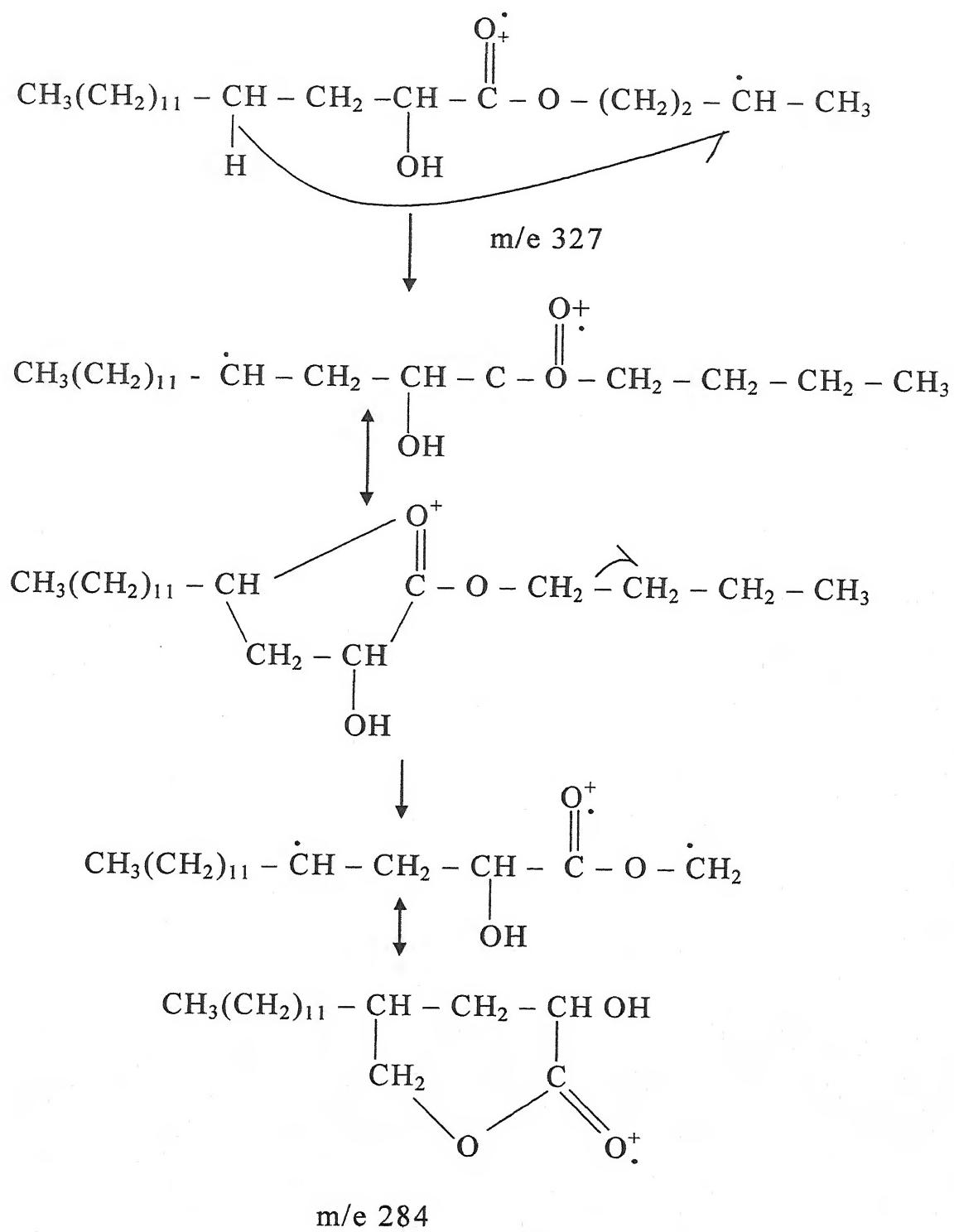
Scheme 13



m/e 284

The fragment ion m/e 284 result by the loss of mass unit 43 from m/e 327 (Scheme 14).

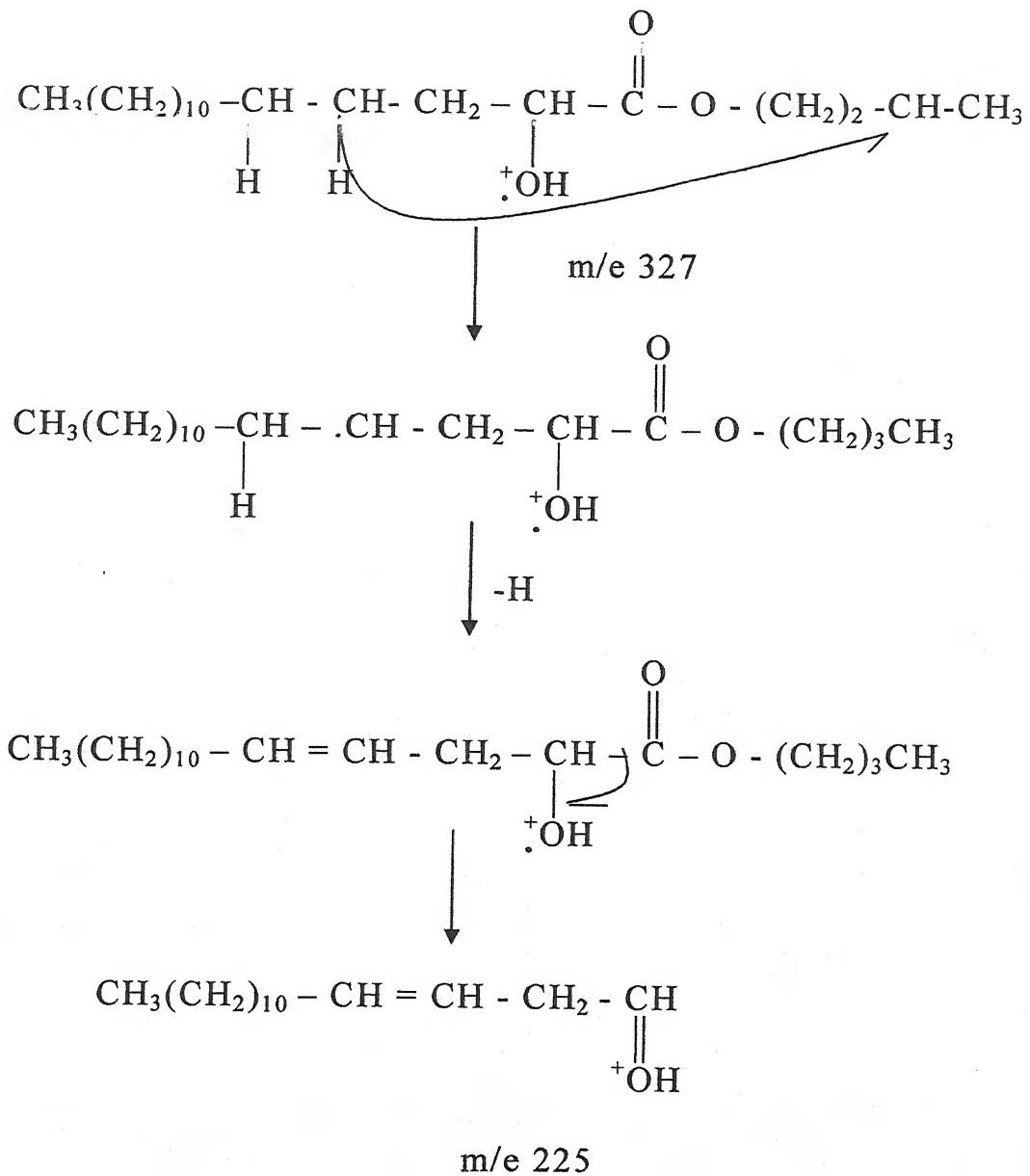
Scheme 14



m/e 225

The fragment ion m/e 225 is diagnostic in nature and it fixes the structure of compound (XXIII) as iso-amyl 2-hydroxy- hexadecanoate. The ion formation may be attributed to the cleavage between carbon 1 and 3 (Scheme 15)

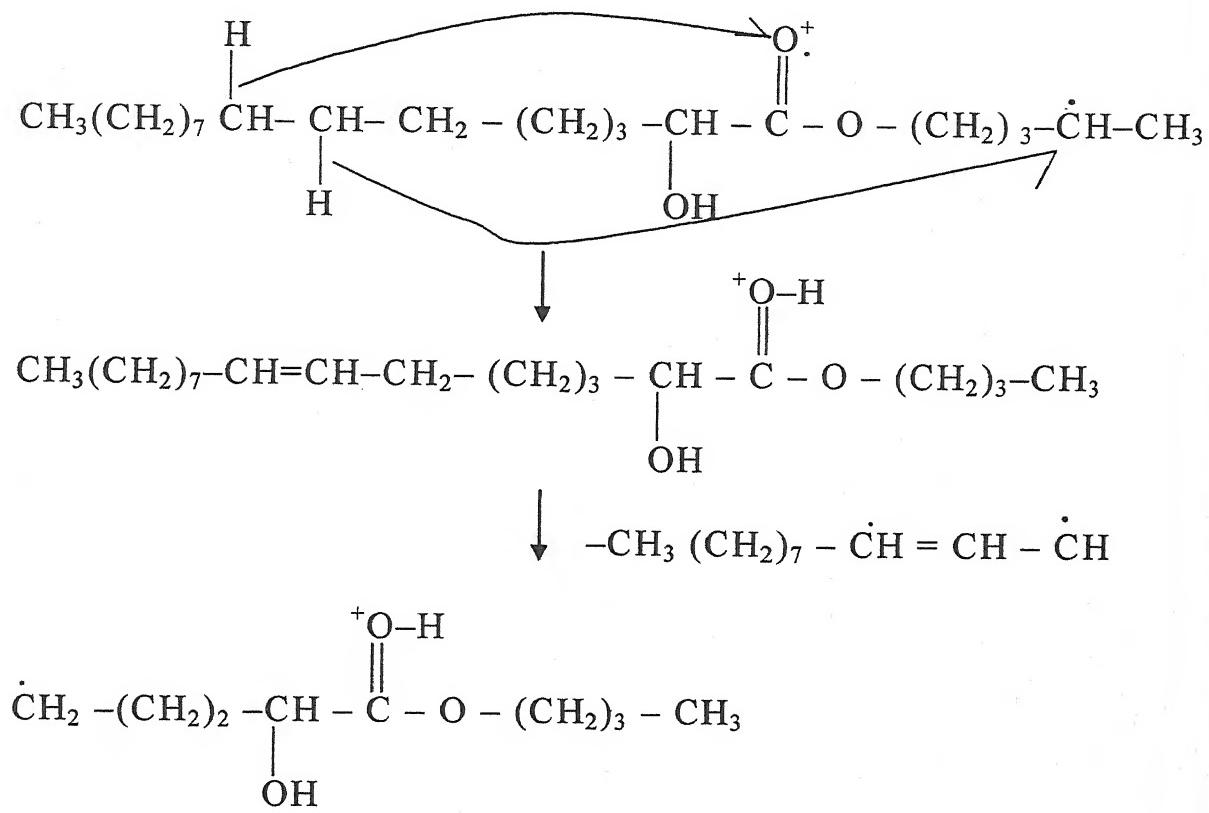
Scheme 15



m/e 174

The fragment ion peak at m/e 174 fairly strong and this perhaps results by the loss of $\text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_7\text{CH}=\text{CH}-\text{CH}_2$ from the ion m/e 327 (Scheme 16).

Scheme 16

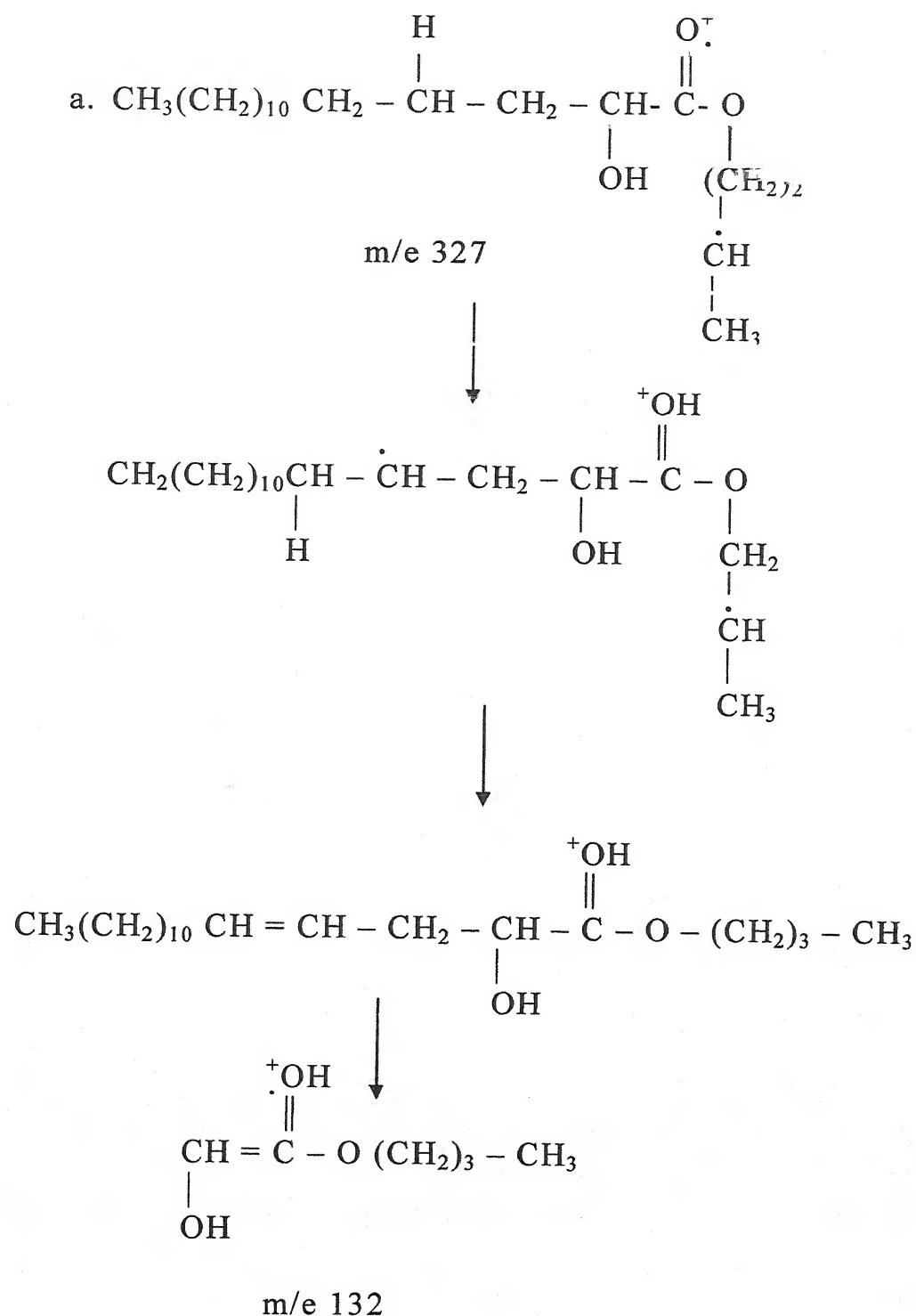


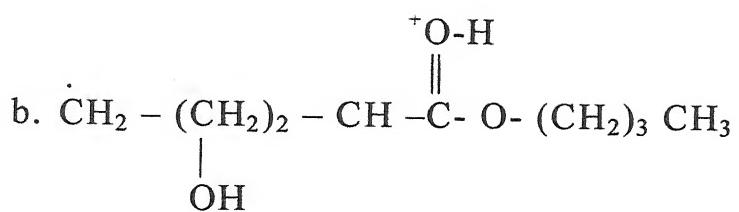
m/e 174

m/e 132

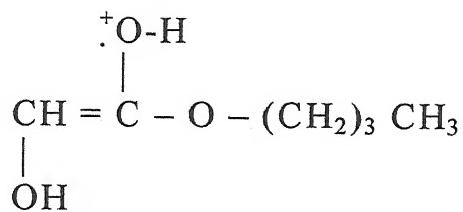
The fragment ion peak at m/e 132 constitutes the base peak of the spectrum which indicates the position of the substituent – OH at C 2 atom of the chain. This fragment ion can be shown to arise by the migration of two hydrogens and simultaneous cleavage of 2, 3 carbon-carbon single bond from m/e 327 (Scheme 17).

Scheme 17





\downarrow m/e 174

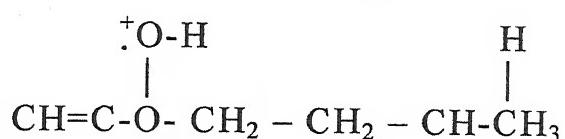


m/e 132

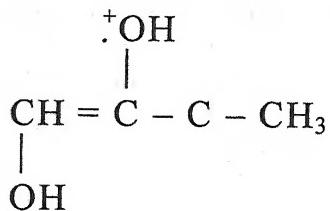
m/e 90

The fragment ion m/e 90 may result by the loss of mass unit 42 from m/e 132 (Scheme 18).

Scheme 18



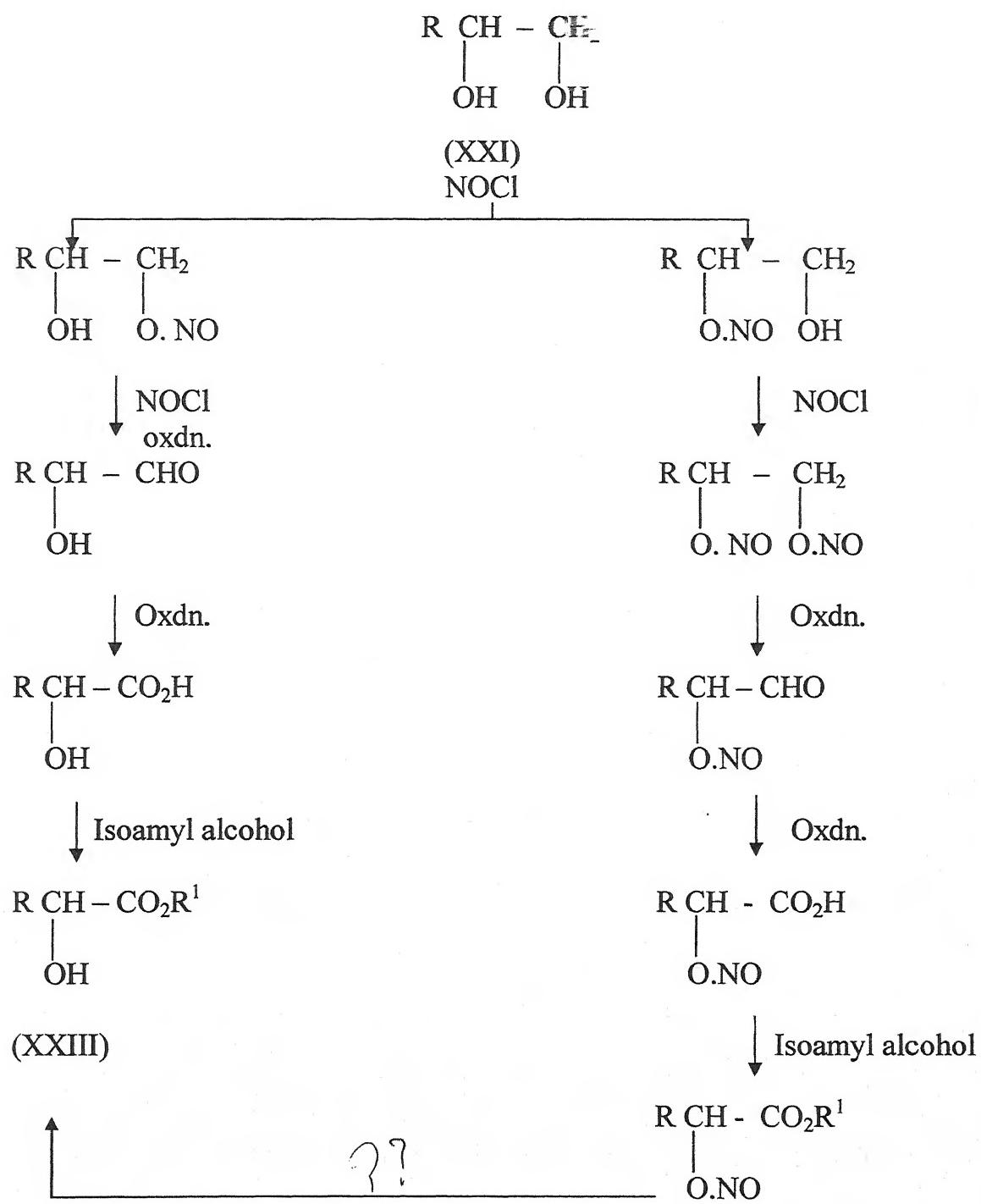
\downarrow m/e 132



m/e 90

The probable route for the formation of compounds (XXII) and (XXIII) from (XXI) may be shown as under (Scheme 19).

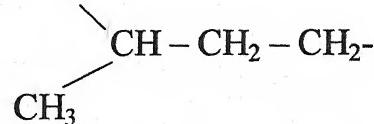
Scheme 19



$\text{R} = \text{CH}_3(\text{CH}_2)_{13} -$

(XXII)

$\text{R}^1 = \text{CH}_3$



Reaction of nitrosyl chloride with 10, 11-epoxyundecanoic acid (XXV)

It is known that the oxirane group is highly reactive and undergoes a wide variety of ring-opening reactions with a broad range of electrophiles and nucleophiles. During the past decades, in particular, new and interesting reactions of the oxirane group have been described that provide new routes to other heterocyclic ring systems and functional groups. The reactions of many reagents with the oxirane group had been studied till date but no work had been reported on the reaction of oxiranes with nitrosyl chloride. A terminal epoxide was further selected for the present study with a view to study the direction of ring openings.

Preparation of 10, 11-epoxyundecanoic acid

(XXV) from 10-undecenoic acid (XXIV)

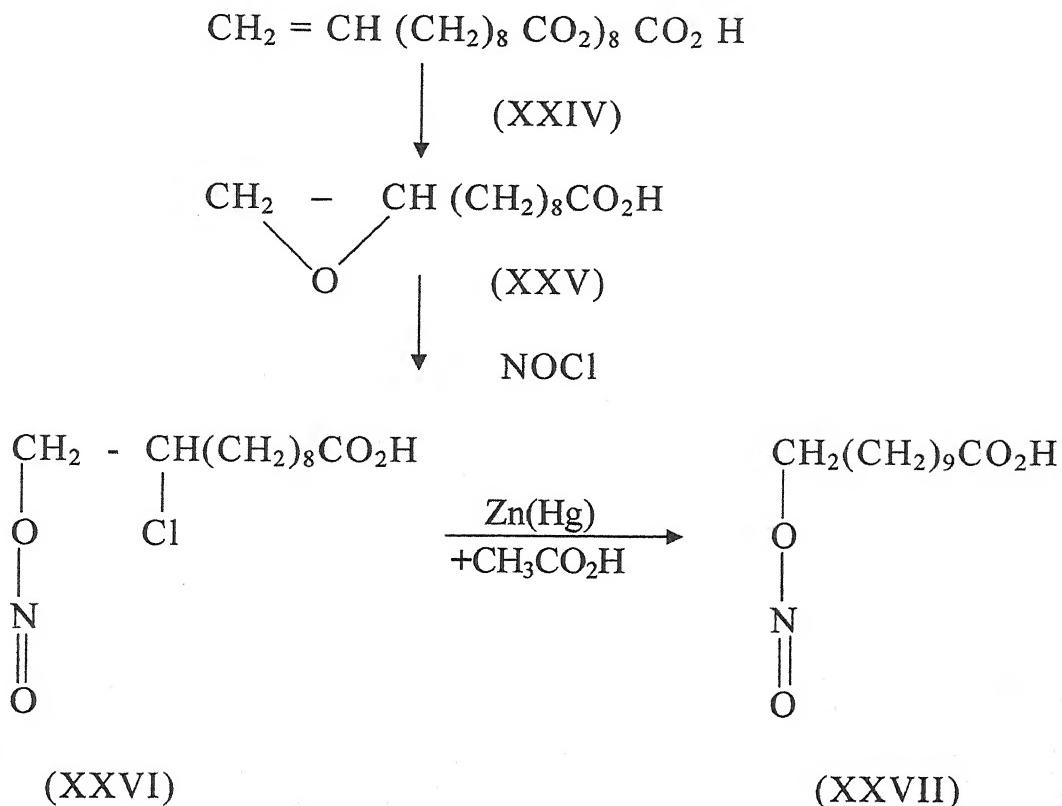
The 10-undecenoic acid (XXIV) was epoxidized to 10,11-epoxyundecanoic acid (XXV) by the procedure of Gunstone and Jacobsberg¹¹⁵. The epoxy acid (XXV) thus obtained was purified by using silica column.

Reaction of Compound (XXV) with NOCl

Nitrosyl chloride, needed for the reaction, was prepared by the action of sodium nitrite and HCl as described by Morton and Wilcox ¹¹⁴. In this case the nitrosyl chloride was not generated *in situ* (*iso*-amyl alcohol + HCl) in order to avoid the contact of hydrochloric acid with the epoxy compound (XXV) as it will also react and open the epoxide ring.

Nitrosyl chloride gas was slowly passed through methylene chloride solution of 10, 11-epoxyundecanoic acid at 0° with continuous stirring till whole of the compound has reacted as evidenced by TLC. Analytical TLC showed the quantitative yield of product (XXVI). A yellow oily liquid was obtained after the final work up.

Scheme 20



The product (XXVI) responded Beilstein test. The elemental analysis corresponded to the molecular formula $\text{C}_{11}\text{H}_{20}\text{O}_4\text{NCl}$. The IR spectrum showed a strong band at 1630 cm^{-1} displayed by the nitrites. The NMR spectrum (Fig. 9, Sheet IX) was decisive in arriving at a more firm conclusion regarding the structure of the compound as 10-chloro-11-nitritoundecanoic acid. NMR spectrum exhibited a doublet centred at τ 6.4 for two protons of methylene group adjacent to oxygen (-O-CH₂-) showing the attachment of nitrito group at terminal carbon atom. The methine proton of chlorine – containing carbon displayed a signal at τ

SHEET-IX

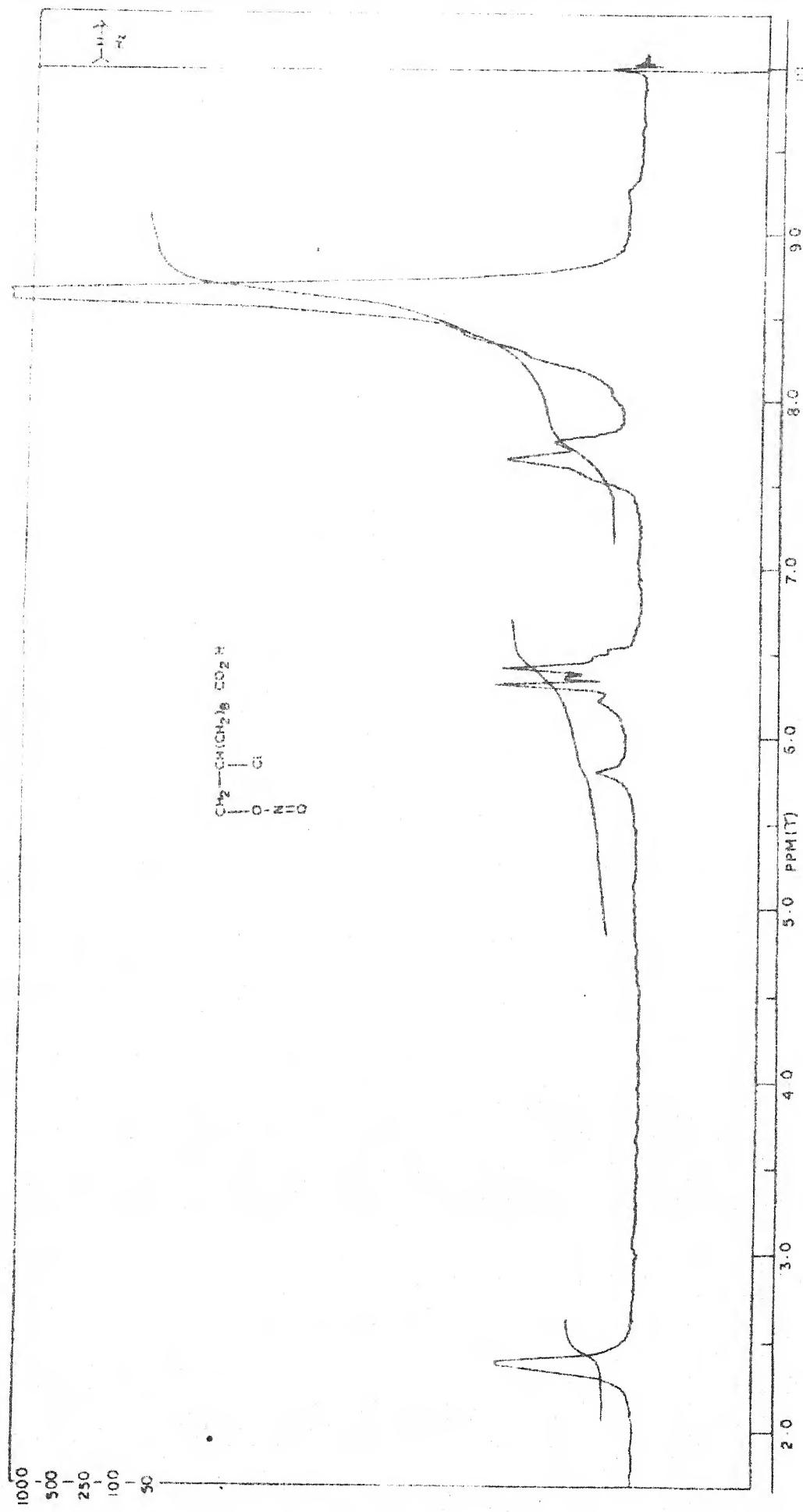
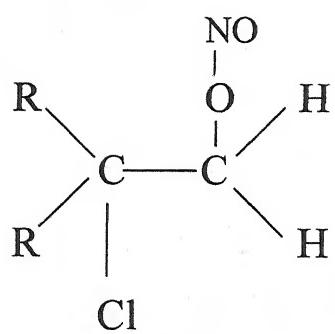
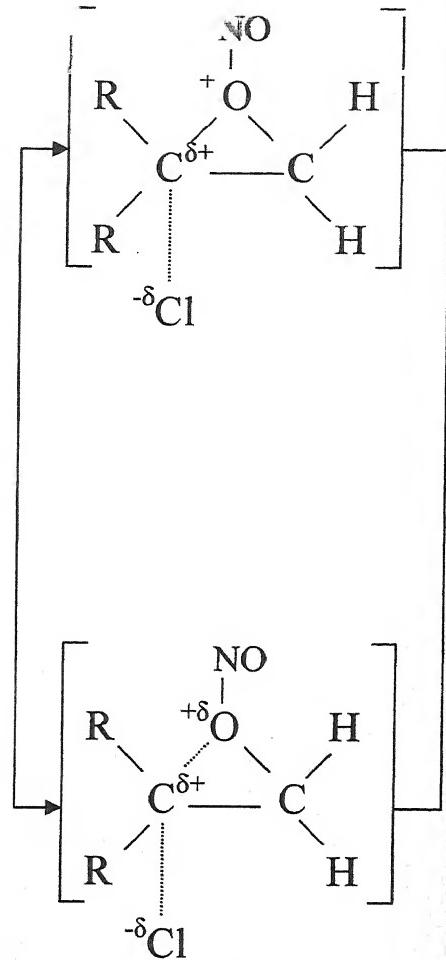
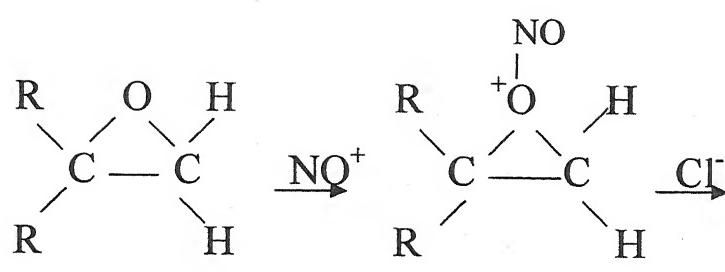


Fig. 9. NMR spectrum of 10-chloro - 11-nitritoundecanoic acid (XXI)

5.9. Other usual NMR signals generally displayed by fatty acid chain
were present at

$\begin{array}{c} \text{O} \\ \parallel \\ \tau 2.47 (-\text{C}-\text{OH}, \text{D}_2\text{O exchangeable}), 7.7 (2\text{H}, \text{protons } \alpha \text{ to carboxylic} \\ \text{group}), \text{and } 8.65 (\text{br s, shielded methylene protons}). \text{ In order to ascertain} \\ \text{the respective positions occupied by nitrito and chloro groups the product} \\ (\text{XXVI}) \text{ was also subjected to reductive removal of chlorine atom} \\ \text{yielding a product (XXVII) which gave negative Beilstein test. The NMR} \\ \text{spectrum of compound (XXVII) showed the disappearance of signal at } \tau \\ 5.9 \text{ showing thereby that the signal at } \tau 5.9 \text{ in compound (XXVI) was due} \\ \text{to the methine proton adjacent to chlorine atom. These data supported the} \\ \text{structure of compound (XXVI) as 10-chloro-11-nitritoundecanoic acid.} \end{array}$

The exclusive formation of 10-chlore-11-nitrito isomer is in conformity with the reported ring opening reactions of terminal epoxy compounds. A reasonable mechanism for the formation of compound (XXVI) from compound (XXV) is as follows:



Where $\text{R} = -(\text{CH}_2)_8.\text{COOH}$

EXPERIMENTAL PROCEDURES

EXPEIMENTAL PROCEDURE

All melting points were observed on a Kofler apparatus and are uncorrected. Infrared (IR) spectra were obtained with a Perkin Elmer 621 spectrophotometer. The abbreviations w, m and str stand for weak, medium and stretching respectively. Ultraviolet (UV) spectra were determined with a Bechman DK-2A spertrophotometer. Nuclear magnetic resonance (NMR) spectra were recorded with a Varian A 60 NMR spectrometer. Chemical shifts are reported as τ (ppm) relative to tetramethyl silane (TMS). The samples were run as 10% solution in $\text{CDCl}_3/\text{CCl}_4$. The abbreviations s, d, t, q, m, um, mc, and br denote singlet, doublet, triplet, quartet, multiplet, unresolved multiplet, multiplet centered at and broad respectively. Mass spectra (MS) were measured with a Varian MAT-311 (A) mass spectrometer. Microanalyses were performed by Instrumentation Centre, Chemical Laboratories, Aligarh Muslim University, Aligarh. Abbreviations *Anal.* and *Calcd* stand for analysis and calculated respectively. Thin layer chromatographic (TLC) plates were coated with silica gel G, and a mixture of petroleum ether-ether acetic acid (80:20:1, V/V/V) was used as developing solvent. The spots were visualized by charring after spraying with a 20 % aqueous solution of perchloric acid. Petroleum ether refers to a fraction of bp 40-60°.

Preparation of nitrosyl chloride *in situ*

The nitrosyl chloride was generated *in situ* by the action of hydrochloric acid on iso-amyl nitrite³. Iso-amyl nitrite was prepared as under:

In a 3 l three-necked round-bottomed flask, fitted with a mechanical stirrer, a separating funnel extending to the bottom of the flask, and a thermometer, were placed 380 g (5.5 moles) of C.P. NaNO₂ and 1.5 l of water. The flask was surrounded by an ice-salt mixture, and the solution was stirred until the temperature falls to 0°. A mixture of 100 ml of water, 136 ml (250 g, 2.5 moles) of conc. H₂SO₄ (Sp. gr. 1.84), and 440 g (5 moles) of commercial iso-amyl alcohol was cooled to 0° and by means of the separating funnel was introduced slowly beneath the surface of the nitrite solution, with stirring. The alcohol solution was added slowly enough so that practically no gases evolved, and temperature was kept at +1°. This required for 1 ½ - 2 hr.

The resulting mixture was allowed to stand in the ice-salt bath until it separated into two layers, and the liquid were decanted from the Na₂SO₄ into a separating funnel. The lower aqueous layer was removed and the iso amyl nitrite layer. The washed twice with 50 ml portions of solution containing 2 g NaHCO₃ and 25 g of NaCl in 100 ml of water.

After drying over 20 g of anhydrous Na_2SO_4 , the yield of practically pure iso-amyl nitrite amounted to 81-85 % of the theoretical amount.

Nitrosochlorination methyl oleate

Preparation of methyl oleate (VII)

Pure oleic acid (10.0 g) was dissolved in anhydrous methanol (100 ml) containing catalytic amount of sulphuric acid and refluxed for 1.5 hr. The mixture was then diluted with water and extracted with ether. The ethereal extract was dried over anhydrous sodium sulphate. Evaporation of ether yielded methyl oleate (VII) as a colourless oil (9.8 g).

Reaction of methyl oleate with approximately

stoichiometric quantity of NOCl

A mixture of 3 g (0.01 mole) of methyl oleate and 1.5 g (0.012 mole) of *iso*-amyl nitrite in 50 ml of methylene chloride was cooled to about 0° in a ice-salt bath. 1.7 ml of conc. HCl was added dropwise with stirring in 30 min. Stirring was continued at ice bath temperature for 1.5 hr. A deep blue coloured solution was obtained. The reaction mixture was washed with water dried over anhydrous sodium sulphate and the solvent was removed under reduced pressure. The generated *iso*-amyl alcohol was removed by partitioning between 70 % methanol and petrol (1:1). The petrol fraction was dried over anhydrous Na_2SO_4 and the products

obtained after evaporation of the solvent were chromatographed over a column of silica gel (50 g). Elution with petroleum ether-ether (98: 2, V/V) gave fraction 1. This fraction was obtained in major amount as a blue liquid. The spectral and combustion data of this fraction are tabulated below:

unpurified?

Anal. Calcd for $\text{C}_{19}\text{H}_{36}\text{NO}_3\text{Cl}$: C, 63. 04; H, 10.02; N, 3.84. Found: C, 63.12; H, 10.05; N, 3.85.

IR (neat): 3450 (w,OH), 1730 (ester - $\overset{\text{O}}{\underset{\text{||}}{\text{C}}}$ -), 1640 (w,C=N), 1570 (N=O), 1110 (C-N), 710 (C-Cl) cm^{-1} .

$\text{H}(\text{CCl}_4)$: τ 2.52 (=NOH, D_2O exchangeable), 6.12 (1H, -CHCl-), 6.34 (s, 3H-C-OCH₃), 6.65 [1H, -CH(NO)-] 7.76 (2H, methylene protons α to ester group), 8.38 (2H, methylene protons α to -CHCl-), 8.65 (br s, shielded chain methylene protons), and 9.12 (distorted t, 3H, terminal methyl protons).

Subsequent elution with petroleum ether-ether (95: 5, V/V) gave fraction 2. This fractions was obtained in minor amount (R_f 0.3). The combustion and spectral data are given below:

Anal. Calcd for $\text{C}_{19}\text{H}_{36}\text{NO}_3\text{Cl}$: C, 63.04 ; H, 10.02 ; N, 3.84. Found: C, 63.10; H, 10.01; N, 3.86.

IR (neat): 3450 (OH), 1730 (ester - $\overset{\text{O}}{\underset{\text{||}}{\text{C}}}$ -), 1640 (m, C=N), 720 (C-Cl) cm^{-1} .

NMR (CDCl_3) : τ 2.65 (1H, =NOH), 6.1 (1H, -CHCl-), 6.35 (s, 3H, -C=OCH₃), 7.76 (2H, methylene protons α to ester group) 8.65 (brs, shielded chain methylene protons and 9.12 (distorted t, terminal methyl protons).

Treatment of methyl oleate with excess of NOCl (in situ) :-

The methyl oleate (VII) on treatment with excess of NOCl (isooamyl nitrite + HCl) produced a compound (X) in addition to compound (VIII) and (IX). The reaction product was worked up as described earlier. The compound (X), having R_f value (0.5) higher than oxime (IX), was characterized as methyl 9(10)-chloro-10(9)-nitriminostearate. The spectral and combustion data of compound (X) are given below:

Anal. Calcd for $\text{C}_{19}\text{H}_{35}\text{N}_2\text{O}_4\text{Cl}$: C, 58.37; H, 9.02; N, 7.19. Found: C, 58.39; H, 8.98; N, 7.18.

IR (neat) : 1730 (s, ester -C=O-), 1640 (m C=N), and 1550, 1360 (NO₂), 710 (C-Cl) cm^{-1} .

NMR (CCl_4) : τ 5.86 (1H, -CHCl-), 6.34 (s, 3H, -C=O-OCH₃), 7.38 [t, 2H, -CH₂-C(=N.NO₂)-], 7.76 (t, 2H, -CH₂-C(=O)-OCH₃),

8.67 (br s, shielded methylenes), 9.12 (distorted t, 3H, terminal methyl).

Nitrosochlorination of methyl 10-undecenoate (XI)

Preparation of methyl 10-undecenoate (XI)

Methyl 10-undecenoate (XI) was prepared by refluxing the acid (10.0 g) with absolute methanol (100 ml) and catalytic amount of sulphuric acid as described earlier.

Nitrosochlorination

To the solution of methyl 10-undecenoate (XI, 2.5 g) in 100 ml methylene chloride was added 2.0 g of *iso*-amyl nitrite and cooled at about 0° in an ice-salt bath. 2.5 ml of conc. HCl was added dropwise with stirring in 30 min. Stirring was continued at ice-salt bath temperature for 1.5 hr. After the usual work-up products showed the presence of four components on TLC and were chromatographed over a column of silica gel (40 g). Only three components were isolated and characterized in pure form.

Elution with petroleum ether gave a blue coloured liquid which was not analyzed further on account of being unstable.

Subsequent elution with petroleum ether-ether (90: 5, V/V) gave methyl 10-chloro-nitriminoundecanoate (XV, 0.4 g) as a green oil.

Anal. Calcd for C₁₂H₂₁N₂O₄Cl : C, 49.23 ; H, 7.23 ; N, 9.56.

Found : C, 49.27 ; H, 7.22 ; N, 9.58.

IR (neat) : 1730 (ester - $\overset{\text{||}}{\text{C}}$ -), 1630 (C=N), 1550 (NO₂) and 720 (C-Cl) cm⁻¹.

NMR (CCl₄) : τ 3.84 (1H, -CH=N.NO₂), 5.4 (m, 1H, -CHCl-), 6.34 (s, 3H, - $\overset{\text{O}}{\text{C}}$ -OCH₃), 7.76 (2H, -CH₂- $\overset{\text{H}}{\text{C}}$ -OCH₃), 8.68 (br s, shielded methylenes). Subsequent elution with a mixture of petroleum ether-ether (90: 10, V/V) gave methyl 10-chloro-11-oximinoundecanoate (XIV, 0.5 g, mp 42°).

Anal. Calcd for C₁₂H₂₂O₃NCl: C, 54.64; H, 8.40; N, 5.31.

Found: C, 54.62; H, 8.48; N, 5.40.

IR (In Nujol): 3300 (OH), 1730 (ester- $\overset{\text{O}}{\text{C}}$ -), 1680 (C=N), 720 (C-Cl)cm⁻¹.

NMR (CDCl₃): τ 2.6 (1H, =NOH), 3.6 (1H, -CH=NOH), 5.66 (1H, -CHCl-), 6.34 (s, 3H, - $\overset{\text{O}}{\text{C}}$ -OCH₃), 7.76 (2H, CH, α to the ester -C-group), 8.65 (br s, chain -CH₂-).

Further support to the structure of compound (XIV) was achieved from the analysis of the corresponding carbonyl compound (XVI) obtained by the deoximation of the compound (XIV).

Deoximation of compound (XIV) by levulinic acid and HCl¹¹²

200 mg of the oxime was mixed with 30 parts or a solution of 9 volumes of levulinic acid and one volume of 1N HCl. This mixture was placed in a erlenmeyer flask and stirred at room temperature for 3 hr. If the oxime was not immediately soluble, it gradually dissolved over the course with methylene chloride, and the extracts washed free of levulinic acid with bicarbonate solution. The methylene chloride was removed and the carbonyl compound recovered by chromatography.

IR (Neat) : 2910, 2840, 2800, 1730, 1710 (ester and aldehyde carbonyls), 1450 1370, 710 (C-Cl) cm⁻¹.

Subsequent elution with a mixture of petroleum ether -ether (60: 40, V/V) gave a dimer of methyl 10-chloro-11-nitroso undecanoate (XIII, 0.8g, mp 95°).

Anal. Calcd for (C₁₂H₂₂O₃NCl)₂ : C, 54.64 ; H, 8.40 ; N, 5.31.

Found : C, 54.68 ; H, 8.35 ; N, 5.38.

IR (In Nujol): 2910, 2840, 1725 (ester --C=O), 1450, 1370, 1270, 1205, 1180, 1160, 710, (C-Cl) cm⁻¹.

NMR (CDCl₃): τ 5.42 (6H, $-\text{CH}_2\text{Cl}$ – and $-\text{CH}_2\text{--N}^+=$), 6.34 (s, 6H, $-\text{C}(=\text{O})\text{--OCH}_3$), 7.77 (protons α to the ester $-\text{C=O}$ group), 8.67 (br s, Chain methylenes).

Preparation of α , β – unsaturated fatty acid

The decos-trans-2-enoic acid was prepared from docosanoic acid by the method of Palameta and Prostenik¹¹⁵.

General procedure

To a well stirred mixture of the saturated acid (25 g) and red phosphorous (1.15 g), dry bromine (12.5 ml) was added dropwis at 90° in a period of 7 hr. The mixture was vigorously stirred during the addition of bromine by using a mercury sealed stirrer. Heating was continued for 24 hr and the cooled solution was poured into cold water and left overnight. The solid product was filtered, extracted with ether, washed, with, 10% aqueous sodium sulphite solution, then with distilled water and dried over anhydrous sodium sulphate. The 2-bromo acid obtained after evaporation of the ether was heated under reflux with powdered potassium iodide (24 g) in 95 % ethanol (175 ml) for 6 hr. To the cooled solution potassium hydroxide (16g) was added and the mixture was refluxed for another 4 hr. most of the alcohol was removed under reduced pressure and the residue diluted with water, acidified with dilute hydrochloric acid, and extracted with ether. The combined ether extracts were washed with water and dried over anhydrous sodium sulphate. After evaporation of the solvent, a mixture of α , β -unsaturated and their co-products, i.e. 2-hydroxy and 2-ethoxy acid were obtained.

The 2-hydroxy acid was separated from α , β -unsaturated acid as a copper chelate by treatment with cupric acetate in ethanol and acetic acid. The remaining two components obtained after removal of 2-hydroxyalkanoic acid were fractionated by silica gel (BDH, 60-120 mesh) column chromatography to afford the individual components. α , β -unsaturated acid, isolated by elution with petroleum ether-ether (95 : 5, V/V, yield 50%), was further purified by crystallization from petroleum ether-ethanol (75 : 25, V/V) (mp 69 $^{\circ}$, lit. 116 mp 68.5-69 $^{\circ}$). The structure of α , β -unsaturated acid was established by elemental and spectral analyses of its methyl ester (XVII) prepared by refluxing the acid (5 g) with absolute methanol (75 ml) and catalytic amount sulphuric acid as described earlier. The spectral and combustion data of α , β -unsaturated acid waster are tabulated below:

Methyl docos - *trans* - 2 - enoate (XVII)

Anal. Calcd for C₂₃H₄₄O₂ : C, 78.31 ; H, 12.57.

Found : C, 78.38 ; H, 12.54.

IR(CCl₄) : 1730(C=C-COOCH₃), 1640 (C=C) and 970(*trans* olefin)cm⁻¹.

NMR (CCl₄): τ 3.1 d,d (J=15 and 5 Hz ; 1H, β to ester carbonyl), 4.0 d (J=15 Hz with a small long range coupling,

trans olefinic proton, 1H, α to ester carbonyl), 6.30 (s, 3H - C=O OCH₃), 8.7 (br s, chain -CH₂-) and 9.12 (distorted t, 3H, terminal -CH₃).

Nitrosochlorination of methyl docos-trans-2-enoate (XVII)

To the solution of methyl docos-trans-2-enoate (2.0 g) in 100 ml methylene chloride was added 2.0 g of iso-amyl nitrite and cooled to about 0° in an ice-salt bath. 2.5 ml of conc. HCl was added dropwise with constant stirring in 30 min. The reaction flask was kept in a refrigerator at 0-5° for about a month. The reaction mixture was worked up as usual. The reaction product showed the presence of three components on analytical TLC. The major component corresponded to starting material. Column chromatographic separation of the products revealed that only about 10 % of the compound (XVII) has reacted. The compounds (XVIII) and XIX were formed to the extent of 6 and 4 % respectively. The structures of compounds (XVIII) and (XIX) were corroborated with the help of microanalysis, IR and NMR.

Elution with petroleum ether gave starting compound (XVII) and subsequent elution with petroleum ether-ether (90: 5, V/V) gave compound (XIX).

Anal. Calcd for C₂₃H₄₃O₄N₂Cl: C, 61.79; H, 9.69; N, 6.26.

Found : C, 61.74 ; H, 9.68 ; N, 6.28.

IR (neat): 1730 (ester $\text{C=}\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}\text{C-}$), 1640 (C=N), 1550 and 1360 (NO₂), 710 (C-Cl) cm⁻¹.

NMR (CCl₄): τ 5.9 (t, 1H, -CHCl-), 6.36 (s, 3H, $\text{C=}\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}\text{C-}$ OCH₃), 8.65 (br s, shielded chain methylenes), and 9.1 (distorted t, 3H, terminal methyl).

Subsequent elution with petroleum ether-ether (90:10, V/V) gave compound (XVIII). Combustion and spectral data are as below:

Anal. Calcd for C₂₃H₄₄O₃NCI: C, 66.07; H, 10.60; N, 3.34.

Found : C, 66.12 ; H, 10.61 ; N, 3.32.

IR(neat): 3300(OH), 1730(ester $\text{C=}\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}\text{C-}$), 1640(C=N), 710 (C-Cl)cm⁻¹

NMR (CDCl₃): τ 2.76 (br, 1H, =N-OH), 6.1 (t, 1H, -CHCl-), 6.34 (s, 3H, $\text{C=}\overset{\text{O}}{\parallel}\text{C-}$ OCH₃), 8.75 (br s, chain methylene protons), and 9.12 (distorted t, 3H, terminal -CH₃).

Reaction of nitorsyl chloride with Fatty 1, 2-diol

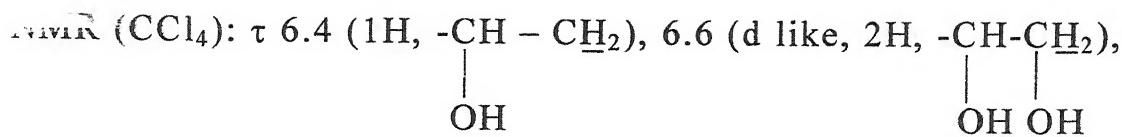
Preparation of Fatty 1, 2-diol (XXI).

Pure 2-hydroxyhexadecanoic acid (XX) (4.0 g, 0.0156 mole) was esterified with absolute methanol (50 ml) containing catalytic amount of sulphuric acid by heating under reflux for 4 hr. The reaction product was extracted with ether washed and dried over anhydrous sodium sulphate. Evaporation of the solvent gave methyl 2-hydroxy hexadecanoate as a white solid, mp 56-56. 5°. The ester (3.8 g, 0.0132 mole) in dry ether (90 ml) was added to a well stirred solution of lithium aluminium hydride (3.8 g) in dry ether (90 ml) at room temperature. The stirring was continued for 1 hr and the excess of reagent was decomposed by a mixture of cold ether-ethyl acetate (95: 5, V/V) and cold 10% sulphuric acid. The product was extracted with ether. The combined ether extracts were washed with water and dried over anhydrous sodium sulphate. Evaporation of ether yielded a solid which on crystallization from gave pure 1, 2-hexadecnediol (3.4 g, XXI), mp 74-75° (lit.¹¹⁷ mp 73.1-73.6°).

Anal. Calcd. For C₁₆H₃₄O₄ : C, 74.36 ; H, 13.26.

Found : C, 74.29 : H, 13.28

IR (KBr): 3440 br (OH), 2910, 1480, 1150, 1070, 990, 975, 880 and 730 (C-O) cm⁻¹.



8.7 (br s, chain - CH_2 -) and 9.15 (distorted t, 3H, terminal - CH_3).

Reaction of nitrosyl chloride with 1, 2-diol (XXI)

The 1, 2-hexadecanediol (XXI, 1.0 g, 0.0038 mole) was treated with NOCl in situ (*iso*-amyl alcohol + HCl) in methylene chloride (25 ml) for 6 hr at room temperature. After the usual work-up the product showed three distinct spots on TLC out of which one corresponded to the spot of starting compound (XXI). The product (~0.88 g) was chromatographed over a column of silica gel (15 g) and the elution was carried out with petroleum ether containing increasing amount of ethyl ether. Elution with petroleum ether gave *iso*-amyl 1 2-nitritohexadecanoate (XXII, 0.21 g).

Anal. Calcd for $\text{C}_{21}\text{H}_{41}\text{O}_4\text{N}$: C, 67.88; H, 11.12; n, 3.76.

Found: C, 67.85; H, 11.11; 3.78.

IR (neat): 1730 (ester C=O), 1630 (-O-N=O) cm^{-1} .

NMR (CCl_4): τ 5.9 (mc, 3H, -O- CH_2 -CH-O-), 8.4 (1H, -CH), 8.7 (br s, shielded methylene protons), 9.1 (apparent d, 9H, methyl protons).

Mass : m/e 201 (1.7), 191 (0.8), 188 (0.6), 187 (2.3), 173 (0.4), 157 (4.5),
117 (3.8), 87 (3.3), 86 (3.9), 85 (9.0), 73(2.1), 72 (6.5), 71 (100.0), 70
(12.0), 69 (9.5), 58 (1.8), 57 (11.4), 56 (5.8), 55 (18.7), 53 (1.7).

Subsequent elution wih a mixture of petroleum ether -ether (95: 5, V/V)
gave iso-amyl 2-hydroxyhexadecanoate (XXIII), 0.32 g.

Anal. Calcd for C₂₁H₄₂O₃ N: C, 70.73; H, 11.87; N, 3.92.

Found: C, 70.78; H, 11.85; N, 3.94.

IR (neat): 3350 (OH), 1730 (ester C=O) cm⁻¹

NMR (CDCl₃): τ 5.9 (mc, 3H, -CH-OH and -O-CH₂-), 7.3
(1H, CHO $\underline{\text{H}}$, D₂O exchangeable), 8.4 (1H, - $\begin{array}{c} \text{CH}_3 \\ \diagdown \\ \text{CH} \\ \diagup \\ \text{CH}_3 \end{array}$), 8.65 (br s,
shielded chain methylenes), 9.05 (apparent d, 9H, methyls).

Mass : 327 (0.9), 313 (1.2), 295 (0.7), 294 (0.7), 286 (0.9), 284 (6.7), 225
(7.0), 174 (19.8), 133 (7.1), 132 (100.0), 116 (4.4), 113 (4.9), 111 (5.6),
109 (5.0), 104 (4.2), 100 (4.6), 99 (6.6), 97 (10.2), 95 (8.5), 90 (47.8),
85 (11.6), 84, (4.3), 83 (12.5), 82 (6.4), 81 (12.2), 74 (4.10, 71 (18.2), 70
(5.4), 69 (17.7), 68 (4.9), 67 (9.3), 57 (34.9), 56 (8.9), 55 (27.6), 54 (4.9).

Subsquent elution with petroleum ether-ether (80: 20, V/V) gave
starting material (XXI, 0.25 g), as a solid with mp 74-75°.

Reaction of NOCl with 10, 11-epoxyundecanoic acid (XXV)

Preparation of 10, 11-epoxyundecanoic acid¹¹³

The 10-undecenoic acid (1.5 g) reacted with m-chloroperbenzoic acid (1.2 g) in chloroform (150 ml) at room temperature for 3-4 hr. The epoxy acid, recovered by ether extraction in almost quantitative yield, was purified by preparative TLC using silica (1 mm) and petroleum ether-ether (80: 20, V/V) as developing solvent.

Preparation of nitrosyl chloride and its Reaction to 10, 11-epoxyundecanoic acid (XXV)

Nitrosyl chloride was prepared by the action of sodium nitrite and HCl as described by Morton and Wilcox¹¹⁴. This procedure uses a modification of the previously reported methods. The process is advantageous in that there are no interemediates to purify and the crude nitrosyl chloride contains only oxides of nitrogen. The gas was purified by passing through tubes containing sodium nitrite (to absorb hydrogen chloride), potassium chloride which was been moistened with an amound of water equivalent to 2.4 % of its dry weight (to absorb nitrogen dioxide), and anhydrous calcium chloride. The NOCl gas thus purified, was directly used for the reaction as under:

A solution of 1 g of 10, 11- epoxyundecanoic acid in methylene chloride was taken in a round-bottomed flask and cooled to about 0° in an ice-salt bath. The nitrosyl chloride gas was passed slowly into the reaction mixture with constant stirring at 0° for 15 min. After the gas discontinued the stirring was continued for 1 hr more at ice-salt bath temperature. The reaction mixture showed a single spot on TLC having R_f value slightly lower than the epoxy compound showing thereby a quantitative yield of the product (XXVI, 0.9 g).

Anal. Calcd for C₁₁H₂₀O₄ NCl: C, 49.71; H, 7.58; N, 5.27.

Found : C, 49.75; H, 7.57; N, 5.26.

IR (neat): 1710 (Acid -C-), 1630 (-O-N=O), 720(C-Cl)cm⁻¹

NMR(CCl₄) : τ 2.47(s, 1H, -C=O_H), 5.9(1H, -CHCl),

6.4(d, 2H, -O-CH₂-), 7.7 (2H, protons α to -CO₂H group), and 8.65 (br s, shielded methylene protons).

Compound (XXVII) was obtained by the dechlorination of compound (XXVI) using method of Jungermann and Spoerri¹¹⁸ as described below:

To the solution of compound (XXVI), 0.25 g) in 50 ml of glacial acetic acid, zinc amalgam (1.0 g) was added. The mixture was refluxed for 6 hr. The reaction mixture was extracted with ether after dilution with

water. The ethereal extract was dried over anhydrous sodium sulphate and evaporated to dryness. The product was not found pure as shown by analytical TLC. The NMR of impure sample, however, showed all the signals displayed by compound (XXVI) except the signal at τ 5.9.

REFERENCES

C. REFERENCES

1. D. Swern, Anal. Acad. Sci. (New York), *163*, 601 (1969).
2. E.V. Lynn, and F.A. Lee, J. Am. Pharm. Assoc., *16*, 309 (1927).
3. L.J. Beekham, W.A. Fessler, and M.A. Kise, Chem. Rev., *48*, 319 (1951).
4. P.P. Kadzyauskas, and N.S. Zefirov, Russ. Chem. Rev., *37*, 543 (1968).
5. W.A. Tilden, J. Chem. Soc., *28*, 514 (1875).
6. I.L. Finar, in "Organic Chemistry", Vol. I, 6th ed., published for E.L.B.S., 366 (1975).
7. B.G. Gowenlock, and W. Luttke, Quart. Rev. Chem. Soc., *12*, 321 (1958).
8. L. Kaplin, H. Kwart, and P. von R. Schleyer, J. Am. Chem. Soc., *82*, 2341 (1960).
9. E. Muller, "Houben-Weyl: Methoden der Organischen Chemie", 5/3, 4th ed., Georg Thieme Verlag, Stuttgart, 934 (1962).
10. G. Closs, and S.J. Boris J. Am. Chem. Soc., *82*, 6068 (1960).
11. J. Meinwald, Y.C. Meinwald, and T.N. Baker, ibid., *86*, 4074 (1964).
12. K. Tanabe, and R. Hayashi, Chem. Pharm. Bull. (Japan), *10*, 1177 (1962).
13. L. Schmerling, J.R. Luvisi, and H.W. Welch, J. Am. Chem. Soc., *78*, 2819 (1956).
14. S. Winstein, ibid., *83*, 1516 (1961).
15. T.G. Traylor, and A.W. Baker, ibid., *85*, 2746 (1963).
16. H.C. Brown, J.H. Kawakami, ibid., *95*, 8665 (1973).
17. A.Y. Yakubovich, and A.L. Lembe, J. Gen. Chem. (USSR), *19*, 607 (1949).
18. W.A. Tilden, and M.O. Forster, J. Chem. Soc., 324 (1894).
19. W.R. Miller, E.H. Pryde, J.C. Cowan, and H.M. Teeter, J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc., *42*, 713 (1965).
20. L.J. Beckham (to the Solvay Process Co.), U.S. 2, 336, 387 (Dec., 1943).
21. H.P. Kaufmann, and P. Rover, Fette U. Seifen, *47*, 103 (1940).
22. American oil Chemists Society, "Official and Tentative Methods", ed. by V.C. Mahlenbecher, T.R. Hopper, 2nd ed., rev. to 1961, Chicago, Cd. 1-25.

23. B.W. Ponder, and D.R. Walker, *J. Org. Chem.* **32**, 4136 (1967).
24. C.Y. Shiue, K.P. Park, and L.B. Clapp, *ibid.*, **35**, 2063 (1970).
25. J.P. Preeman, *ibid.*, **26**, 4190 (1961); **27**, 1309 (1962).
26. Idem, *Chem. Ind.*, 1624 (1960).
27. G.A. Boswell, Jr., *J. Org. Chem.* **33**, 3699 (1968).
28. R.F. Goddu, *Anal. Chem.*, **29**, 1790 (1957); **30**, 1707, 2009 (1958).
29. S.G. Brooks, R.M. Evans, G.F.H. Green, J.S. Hunt, A.G. Long, B. Mooney, and L.J. Wyman, *J. Chem. Soc.*, 4614 (1958).
30. C.Y. Shiue, and L.B. Clapp, *J. org. Chem.*, **36**, 1169 (1971).
31. A. Hassner, and C. Heathcock, *ibid.*, **29**, 1350 (1964).
32. W.A. Harrison, E.R.H. Jones, S.D. Meakins, and P.A. Wilkinson, *J. Chem. Soc.*, 3210 (1964).
33. Chung-gi Shin, Yasuchika Yonezawa, Hirotoshi Narukawa, Katsumi Nanjo, and Juji Yoshimura, *Bull. Chem. Soc., Jap.*, **45**, 3595 (1972).
34. M.J. Haire, and G.A. Boswell, Jr., *J. Org. Chem.*, **42**, 4251 (1977).
35. J.A. Leermakers, and H.C. Ramsperger, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, **54**, 1837 (1932).
36. L. Bouveault, and A. Wahl, *Bull. Soc., Chim. France*, **29**, 958 (1903).
37. R.H. Pickard, and H. Hunter, *J. Chem. Soc.*, **123**, 434 (1923).
38. F.A. Lee, and E.V. Lynn, *J. Am. Pharm. Assoc.*, **21**, 125 (1932).
39. N. Kornblum, and E.P. Oliveto, *J. Am. Chem. Soc.*, **71**, 220 (1949).
40. S.Q. Hasan in "Studies of fats and fatty acids", Ph.D. Thesis, A.M.U.; 124 (1980).
41. S.Q. Hasan in "Studies of fats and fatty acids", Ph.D. Thesis, A.M.U.; 142 (1980).
42. C.Y. Hopkins, *J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc.*, **38**, 664 (1961).
43. R. Keuning, in "Analysis and Characterization of Oils, Fats, and Fat Products", H.A. Boekenoogen, ed., Interscience Publicshers, Inc., New York, 309 (1964).

44. C.Y. Hopkins, in "Progress in the Chemistry of Fats and Other Lipids", ed. by R.T. Holman, Vol.8, Pergamon Press, New York, 215 (1965)..
45. F.D. Gunstone and R.P. Inglis, in "Topics in Lipid Chemistry", Vol. 2, ed. by F.D. Gunstone, Logos Press, London, 287 (1971).
46. C.Y. Hopkins, in "Progress in the Chemistry of Fats and other Lipids", ed. by R.T. Holman, Vol. 8, Pergamon Press, Oxford, 213 (1966).
47. D. Chapman, in "The Structure of Lipids", John Wiley, New York, NY., 160 (1965).
48. D.J. Frost, in "The Structural Analysis of Fatty Acids and Esters by Nuclear Magnetic Resonance", Ph.D. Thesis, University of Amsterdam, 28 (1974).
49. D.J. Frost, and F.D. Gunstone, Chem. Phys. Lipids., 15, 53 (1975).
50. J.K.M. Sanders, and D.H. Williams, Chem. Comm., 442 (1970).
51. Idem, J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc., 93, 641 (1971).
52. J. Briggs, G.H. Frost, F.A. Hart, G.P. Moss, and M.L. Staniforth, Chem. Comm., 749 (1970).
53. J.P. wineburg, and D. Swern, J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc., 49, 267 (1972).
54. Idem. ibid., 50, 42 (1973).
55. J. Bus, and D.J. Frost, Recl. Trav. Chim. Pays-Bas, 93, 213 (1974).
56. J.G. Batchelor, R.J. Cushley, and J.H. Prestegard, J. Org. Chem., 39, 1968 (1974).
57. D.J. Frost, in "The structural Analysis of Fatty Acids and Esters by Nuclear magnetic Resonance", Ph.D. Thesis, University of Amsterdam, 218 (1974).
58. G.C. Levy, and G.L. Nelson, in "Carbon-13 Nuclear Magnetic Resonance for Organic Chemists", Wiley-Interscience, New York, N.Y., 7 (1972).
59. D.E. Dorman, M. Jantelat, and J.D. Robersts, J. Org. Chem., 38, 1026 (1973).
60. A.P. Tulloch, and M. Mazurek, Lipids, 11, 228 (1976).
61. J. Bus, J. Sies, and M.S.F. Lie Ken Jie, Chem. Phys. Lipids., 17, 501 (1976).
62. Idem, ibid., 18, 130 (1977).

63. F.D. Gunstone, M.R. Pollard, C.M. Scrimgeour, N.W. Gilman, and B.C. Holland, *ibid.*, 17, 1 (1976).
64. F.D. Gunstone, M.R. Pollard, C.M. Scrimgeour, and H.S. Vedanayagam, *ibid.*, 18, 115 (1977).
65. C.R. Smith, Jr., in "Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids", ed. by W.H. Kunau, and R.T. Holman, Chapter 6, 98 (1977).
66. Shi-Chow Chen, R.M. Elefson, and J.M. Mactaggart, *J. Agric. Food Chem.*, 27, 435 (1979).
67. J.A. McCloskey, in "Topics in Lipid Chemistry", Vol., 1, ed. by F.D. Gunstone, Logos Press, London, 369 (1970).
68. A. Zeman, and H. Scharmann, *Fette, Seifen, Anstrichmittel*, 74, 509 (1972), 75, 32 (1973).
69. R.A. Klein, *Chem. Phys. Lipids.*, 21, 291 (1978).
70. R.A. Hites, *Anal. Chem.*, 42, 1736 (1970).
71. Idem, *Methods Enzymol.*, 35B, 348 (1975).
72. R. Ryhage, and S. Wikstrom, in "mass spectrometry Techniques and Applications" ed. by G.W.A. Milne, Wiley-Interscience, New York, 91 (1971).
73. R. Ryhage, *Quart. Rev. Biophys.*, 6, 311 (1973).
74. C.J.W. Brooks, *Mass Spectrometry*, 1, 288 (1971).
75. C.J.W. Brooks, and B.S. Middleditch, *ibid.*, 2, 302 (1973); 3, 296 (1975).
76. H.D. Beckey, H. Knoppel, and G. Metzinger, *Advan. mass Spectrom.*, 3, 35 (1966).
77. A.J.B. Hobertson, and B.W. Viney, *ibid.*, 3, 23 (1966).
78. F.W. Mc Lafferty, in "Mass Spectrometry of Organic Ions", ed. by F.W. Mc Lafferty, Academic Press, New York, 309 (1963).
79. R. Ryhage, and E. Stenhammar, *Arkiy Kemi*, 15, 545 (1960).
80. G. Englinton, and D.H. Hunneman, *Phytochem.*, 7, 313 (1968).
81. G. Englinton, D.H. Hunneman, and A.M.C. Cormick, *Org. Mass Spectrom.*, 1, 593 (1968).

82. R.T. Aplin, and L. Coles, Chem. Comm., 858 (1967).
83. A.K. Sen-Gupta, Chem. Ind., 257 (1972),
84. R. Kleiman, and G.P. Spencer, J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc., 50, 31 (1973).
85. C.R. Smith, Jr., in "polyunsaturated Fatty Acids", ed. by W.H. Kunau and R.T. Holman, Chapter 6, 92 (1977).
86. R. Ryhage, S. Stallberg Stenhagen, and E. Stenhagen, Arkiv kemi, 18, 179 (1961).
87. D.E. Minnikin, P. Abley, F.J. Mc Quillin, K. Kusamran, K. Maskens, and N. Polgar, Lipids, 9, 185 (1974).
88. D.E. Minnikin, ibid., 10, 55 (1975),
89. B.A. Andersson, and R.T. Holman, ibid., 9, 185 (1974).
90. B.A. Andersson, W.H. Heimermann, and R.T. Holman, ibid., 9, 443 (1974).
91. B.A. Andersson, W.W. Christie, and R.T. Holman, ibid., 10, 215 (1975).
92. R.D. Plattner, G.F. Spencer, and R. Kleiman, ibid., 11, 222 (1976).
93. R. Kleiman, M.B. Bohannon, F.D. Gunstone, and J.A. Barve, ibid., 11, 599 (1976).
94. J.A. Mc Closky, and J.H. Law, ibid., 2, 225 (1967).
95. J.C. Prome, Bull, Soc. Chim. Fr., 655 (1968).
96. D.E. Minnikin, Lipids, 7, 398 (1972).
97. W.J. Gensler, and J.P. Marshall, J. Org. Chem., 42, 126 (1977).
98. N.K. Harper, and J.H. Law, J. Lipid Res., 9, 270 (1968).
99. P.K. Raju, and R. Reiser, Lipids, 2, 197 (1967).
100. T.A. Eieseile, L.M. Libbey, N.E. Pawlowski, J.E. Nixon, and R.C. Sinnhuber, Chem. Phys. Lipids., 12, 316 (1974).
101. W.W. Christie, D. Rebello, and R.T. Holman, Lipids, 4, 229 (1969).
102. J.C.M. Schogt, and P. Haverkamp-Begemann, J. Lipids, Res., 6, 466 (1965).
103. L.J. Morris, M.O. Marshall, and W. Kelly, Tetrahedron Letters, 4249 (1966).
104. F.H. Ansari, S.M. Osman, and M.R. Subbaram, Ind. J. Chem. 11, 1053 and 1079 (1973).

105. S.M. Osman, and G.A. Qazi, Fette, Seifen, Anstrichmittel, 77, 106 (1975).
106. A.A. Ansari, F. Ahmad, and S.M. Osman, J. Am. Oil Chem. Soc., 53, 541 (1976).
107. A.A. Ansari, F. Ahmad, and S.M. Osman, Fette, Seifen, Anstrichmittel, 79, 328 (1977).
108. M.U. Ahmad, M.S. Ahmad, Jr., and S.M. Osman, J. Am. oil Chem. Soc., 55, 491 (1978).
109. M.U. Ahmad, M.S. Ahmad, Jr., and S.M. Osman, ibid., 55, 669 (1978).
110. F. Ahmad, Nasirullah, (Miss) S.F. Siddiqui, and S.M. Osman, Fette, Seifen, Anstrichmittel (1979, In press).
111. E.L. Skan, J.C. Arthur, Jr., and H. Wakeham, in "Physical Methods of Organic Chemistry", 3rd ed., Vol. 1, Chapter 7, A. Weissberger, ed., Interscience, New York, N.Y. (1959).
112. C.H. Depuy, and B.W. Ponder, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 81, 4629 (1959).
113. F.D. Gunatone, and F.R. Jacobsberg, Chem. Phys. Lipids., 9, 26 (1972).
114. J.R. Morton, and H.W. Wilcox, Inorg. Synthesis, 4, 48 (1953).
115. B. Palameta, and M. Prostenik, Terahedron, 19, 1463 (1963).
116. P.A. Artamonov, Zhur. Obschei. Khim., 22, 1992 (1952).
117. C. Neumann, and Wagner J. Org. Chem., 7, 227 (1942).
118. E. Jungermann and P.E. Spoerri, J. Am. Chem. Soc., 75, 4704 (1969).

PUBLISHED PAPER

Cyanolipids in *Sapindus obovatus* seed oil and reinvestigation of the seed oil of *Heliotropium indicum*, *H. eichwaldi* and *D. viscosa*.

Sarita Rawat, Geeta Nigam, V.K. Srivastava, Syed Nafeesul Hasan and S.Q. Hasan*

Chemistry Department, Pt. Jawahar Lal Nehru P.G. College,
Banda 210001

ABSTRACT

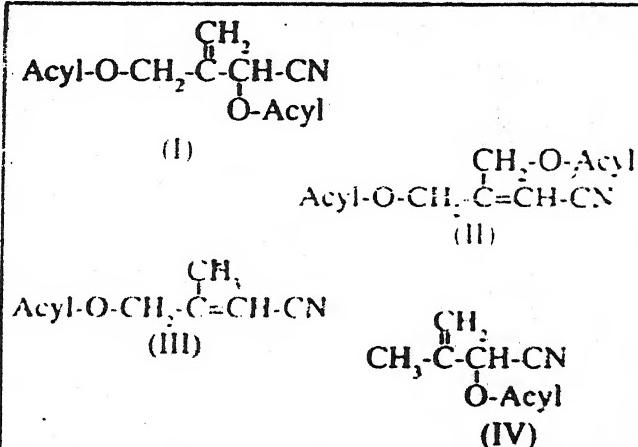
Six species of genus *Sapindus* have been previously investigated (viz. *S. drummondii*, *S. utilis*, *S. mukorossi*, *S. emarginatus*, *S. saponaria* and *S. trifoliatus*) for their cyanolipid content and all were found to contain only one type of cyanolipid, i.e., fatty acid diester of 1-cyano-2-hydroxymethylprop-1-ene-3-ol in varying proportions (13-32%). *S. obovatus* seed kernel oil (16%) has now been investigated and the oil is also found to contain the same type of cyanolipid (20%). *Heliotropium* species (*H. indicum* and *H. eichwaldi*) belonging to Boraginaceae family were found to contain cyanolipid (II). These seed oils were reinvestigated by us but the cyanolipids were not detected in these seed oils. *Dodonea viscosa* seed oil was reported to contain cyanolipid (II), which was reinvestigated by us for its cyanolipid content but cyanolipids were not detected in this seed oil.

KEY WORDS : *Sapindus obovatus*, Cyanolipid, Triglyceride, NCLF and 1-cyano-2-hydroxymethylprop-1-ene-3-ol.

INTRODUCTION

The co-occurrence of cyanolipids with triglycerides in the seed oils of the family Sapindaceae is well documented¹⁻¹⁶. Four types of cyanolipids, present individually or in pairs, have been identified in the seed lipids which are cyanogenetic non-glycerol esters and are derivatives of five-carbon mono or dihydroxy nitrile moiety esterified with long chain fatty acids (I-IV). A work of D.S. Seigler¹⁷ has ruled out the possibility of cyanogenetic non-glycerol ester in any other family than Sapindaceae. However, not all Sapindaceous seeds contain cyanolipids^{1, 17}. Seigler developed a method of NMR spectral analysis of oils for the detection and quantitative determination of cyanolipids in seed oils. By this method cyanolipids were not detected in various oils of Sapindaceae. In the present study the seeds of *Sapindus obovatus* were investigated for their cyanolipid content. Chemicals!

and spectral methods revealed that the seed oil of *Sapindus obovatus* contains cyanolipid (II). *Heliotropium* species (*H. indicum* and *H. eichwaldi*) belonging to Boraginaceae family were found to contain cyanolipid II by Ahmad et.al.⁶ These seed oils were reinvestigated by us. *Dodonea viscosa* seed oil was reported to contain cyanolipid (II) by Sherwani et.al.⁷ which was also reinvestigated by us for its cyanolipid content.



MATERIALS AND METHODS

(i) Oil recovery and ester formation : *S. obovatus* seeds were procured from NBRI Lucknow and oil was isolated (16%) from finely ground seeds by soxhlet extraction for 16hr. with light petroleum ether (b.p.40-60°C). The methyl esters were prepared by refluxing the fatty acid sample for 1 hour in a large excess of absolute methanol containing 1% sulphuric acid (v/v).

(ii) TLC : Analytical TLC of the *S. obovatus* oil on layers (0.25mm) of silica gel G using the oil of *Cardiospermum halicacabum* as reference standard. The oil of *S. obovatus* gave two spots (triglyceride,

*To whom all correspondence should be addressed.

6. Ahmad, I., A.A. Ansari, and S.M. Osman, *Chem. Ind.*, 626 (1978).
 7. Sherwani, M.R.K., S.Q. Hasan, I. Ahmad, F. Ahmad and S.M. Osman, *Ibid.*, 4 (1979).
 8. Mikolajczak, K.L., D.S. Seigler, C.R. Smith, Jr., I.A. Wolff, & R.B. Bates, *Lipids*, 4, 617 (1969).
 9. Seigler, D.S., K.L. Mikolajczak, C.R. Smith, Jr. and I.A. Wolff, *Ibid.*, 4, 147 (1970).
 10. Mikolajczak, K.L., C.R. Smith, Jr. and L.W. Tjarks, *Biochem Biophys. Acta*, 210, 306 (1970).
 11. Idem, *Lipids*, 5, 672 (1970).
 12. Idem, *Ibid.*, 5, 812 (1970).
 13. Mikolajczak, K.L. and C.R. Smith, Jr., *Ibid.*, 6, 349 (1971).
 14. Seigler, D.S., F. Seaman and T.J. Mabry, *Phytochemistry*, 10, 485 (1971).
 15. Charles, D., Q.G. Ali and S.M. Osman, *Chem. Ind. (London)*, 275 (1977).
 16. Roomi, Y.A., V.K. Srivastava and S.Q. Hasan, *J. Oil Tech. Assn. India*, 30, 65 (1998).
 17. Seigler, D.S. and W. Kawahara, *Biochem. System. and Ecology*, 4, 263 (1976).

